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Politics, Literature, Science and Art.

FOUNDED IN 1865.

[*Entered at the New York City Post Office as second-class mail matter.*]

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When a change of address is desired, both the old and new addresses should be given.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 14, 1904.

The Week.

We are now more than two months away from the Panama revolution—that brilliant stroke which was to give us an Isthmian canal while we waited. Yet how much "forrarder" are we for all our reckless haste? We have got a dubious treaty conveying a clouded title. Even that treaty is not yet out of committee, where it is being discussed and amended, and will not be for a week or so. After that the best prospect is of a debate and delays extending over months, while at the end, after ratification, the treaty will at once be taken to the courts and an injunction sued out to prevent the illegal payment of money from the Treasury. And all this in the name of speed! How much time have we saved compared with the method of going on patiently to negotiate with Colombia? Very little, we venture to say; and, while foolishly trying to save time, we have lost moral prestige. Impetuous young men usually find out, as the President is doing, that there is something to be said, after all, for slow but sure.

Another instance of the embarrassment which the President causes his friends by headlong action without due regard to the law, was disclosed in the Senate's long debate on Friday, over the nomination of Mr. Buchanan to be Minister to Panama. Several grave legal difficulties presented themselves. The office itself had not yet been created by Congress, but Mr. Roosevelt hastened to fill it. Furthermore, before being confirmed by the Senate, Mr. Buchanan posted off to the Isthmus and promptly presented his credentials as Minister. Where is the law for all this? Senator Lodge knew all about it, of course; but Senator Spooner, suffering the disadvantage, as compared with the junior Senator from Massachusetts, of being a lawyer, had serious doubts about the legality of the President's course—to the general astonishment, for this is an Administration which "does things," and laws were never meant to fetter a brave and strong Executive who sees what he wants and takes it. So affirms the Senate in its calm ex-post-facto confirmation of Mr. Buchanan.

Senator Lodge airily declares that Colombia had no excuse whatever for rejecting the Hay-Herran treaty, since it was her own proposal and had been accepted by this Government with only "slight modifications." Well, the documents are on file, and they show that Secretary Hay insisted upon very serious modifications of the Colombian offers. For example, the provision for mixed tribunals having jurisdiction in the canal strip was Mr. Hay's own proposition. Moreover, the annual rental first demanded by the Colombian Minister was $600,000. Our Secretary of State, in a note which was practically an ultimatum, cut this sum down to $250,000. As the treaty was to run for at least 100 years, this meant a difference of as much as $35,000,000. But, of course, to a Big American like Senator Lodge, who always thinks in hundred millions, this was only a "slight modification."

Senator Hoar, in his recent autobiography, refers to the saying that the difference between Lodge and himself is that the former has no conscience, while the senior Massachusetts Senator has one, but disobeys it. The latter part of the epigram Mr. Hoar attacks with some asperity; the part referring to his colleague he passes by, as if that were too much for even his powers of controversy. Most people, we fancy, have left off discussing Senator Lodge's morals. His logic, his tact, his political good sense, are the really debatable matters, so far as he is concerned. In his speech on January 5 he vehemently defended the President on grounds which the President himself has abandoned. Mr. Roosevelt confessed on Monday that his action in recognizing Panama was against all precedent. On Tuesday this bosom friend, Senator Lodge, maintained that the "beaten path" had not been departed from an inch. Such are the misfortunes of a Senator with his speech all in type and incapable of alteration on account of such a trifle as a President's message! Senator Bacon made a cruel thrust at Mr. Lodge. The latter was arguing with immense learning that Congress had nothing to do with the recognition of new republics. Thereupon the Georgia Senator asked him how he had advocated in 1895 the joint resolution of Congress recognizing the Cuban republic. It was an awful blow for a great Constitutional lawyer.

The rebuke of President Roosevelt by Yale professors, which was made public on Monday, is perhaps the most damaging blow that his Panama venture has brought him. He has been proud of the repute in which he has been held in academic circles. Yale herself gave him the degree of LL.D.; but now her most eminent professors, Republicans though most of them are, join in a petition filled with expressions which must cut him to the quick. They imply that he has been defiant of law and precedent; that he has trampled upon the rights of the weak; that he has brought the good name of the republic into peril. There is nothing partisan about this utterance from New Haven. It is simply the grieved voice of men of weight and learning, who feel that President Roosevelt has been false to them, and has forgotten the obligations of an educated man in his high office. This grave and reasoned protest of the leading men of Yale, and of influential citizens of New Haven, should rouse the President to the need of taking speedy steps to find an honorable adjustment of the controversy, and to save his public character from the wreck which persistence in his present course threatens.

It is a ghoulish trick to try to reap benefit from public misfortune, but this is just what the people of Massachusetts and California are trying to do. To relieve the intense suffering caused by the great coal famine of a year ago, Congress repealed the duty on anthracite and suspended that on bituminous coal for a year. This period will expire on January 15, 1904. Bills are now before Congress to continue the suspension indefinitely, or at least for another year. Some designing persons say quietly that a year might be enough, as that would possibly carry us to the date of a new general tariff measure. Messrs. McCall and Roberts of Massachusetts have both introduced bills, and California is also anxious for free coal. This attempt to reap an advantage for certain manufacturing industries of New England and California at the expense of the coal mine operators of Pennsylvania is dastardly. Messrs. McCall and Roberts may have mistakenly supposed that they could do Massachusetts a service by advocating free coal. But he serves his party (or his State) best who serves his country best; and is not Pennsylvania the United States when it comes to the tariff? Massachusetts and California ought to learn from Mr. Chamberlain that the different parts of an Empire should agree as to what industries each should pursue. Massachusetts used to be a busy iron manufacturing centre, but of late years the industry has been declining, owing to her not being able to draw on Canada and Cuba for her raw materials. But the point is, what does she get in return for agreeing to a duty on coal and iron ore? Lodge could tell.

"Prominent business men" of New York are warned that it is "up to them" to prevent a horrid disaster to the country. A member of the Senate Finance Committee tells them that they are

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making a great mistake in supposing that they can safely vote for a "good" Democrat in the place of President Roosevelt. Does New York want tariff revision? Assuredly not. But that is what will happen if President Roosevelt is defeated. A Democratic President would certainly mean a Democratic House. But the Senate would still be Republican, the prominent business men reply. True; but it is reasonably certain that the present temper of a number of the Republican Senators is such that the country cannot depend upon an unbroken Senate to save it, as it did on a similar occasion when Mr. Cleveland was President for the first time. In a word, Wall Street is given to understand that if it again insists upon "committing harakiri with the country's business interests," some of the Republican Senators will take it for granted that the people want a change of tariff policy. It all comes back to this: Roosevelt or tariff reform. Many severe moralists would not hesitate a moment over which to choose. But your prominent business man is made of other stuff. Vested interests are all he thinks of, and can there be any such thing without protection?

The Hanna boom is beginning to alarm friends of President Roosevelt. Hitherto they have regarded the cheers for Hanna as so much "hot air"—to use Postmaster-General Payne's admirable phrase. So many States—including Ohio—were pledged to Mr. Roosevelt that his nomination was thought to be as inevitable as the procession of the seasons. But the sappers and miners of Mr. Hanna have never rested night or day; they have had plenty of tools and powder; and though they have succeeded in keeping well underground, an occasional muffled explosion has conveyed a warning that they are already under the outworks. The citadel against which they are moving is Pennsylvania, that home of anthracite operators and railway owners, that forcing-bed of protectionists. Senator Quay is learning that strong financial interests in New York and elsewhere, with which he maintains such a delightful intimacy, are making a dead set for Hanna. The tradition of Pennsylvania politics is not one of lofty idealism, of the sacrifice of corporations to the welfare of the people; and Senator Quay is not only bred in the tradition, but is strengthened in the faith by a personal susceptibility to financial arguments. Should he waver in his adherence to Roosevelt, the outlook for a renomination would grow black. Hanna boomers are cropping up here and there throughout even the West. Mr. Roosevelt's Gibraltar; and Mr. Hanna himself, by withholding the call for the National Convention, allows the movement to gain momentum.

Postmaster-General Payne, in his annual report, accords hearty praise to Mr. Bristow, which is more than Mr. Bristow could give Mr. Payne. It will be remembered that the Sherlock Holmes of the Department, in his memorandum on the frauds, pointedly omitted the name of Mr. Payne from the list of those who had aided his investigations. Mr. Payne, however, expresses the pious hope that, as the thieves have been discovered and the work of some divisions reorganized, all irregular and criminal practices will now disappear. While we join him in wishing that his Department may henceforth be a hotbed of virtue, we fear that something more than reorganization is needed to make and keep it such. The great desideratum, as Mr. Bristow expressed it, is "honest, intelligent, and vigorous administration," and in one or more of these points both Charles Emory Smith and Mr. Payne have failed. Mr. Payne himself has been so notably lacking in vigor that his greatest service to the Department would be his own resignation.

The town of Pineapple, Alabama, is now convinced that lynching does not pay. It did not hold this opinion until lately, but the way in which it changed its mind is set forth in the Southern press. It seems that Pig Melton, colored, and some friends, being engaged in a game of "craps," differed as to their proceedings, with the result that Pig died from a pistol shot. The murderer at once left for other regions after wounding a white man, but an accessory to the crime was arrested and confined in the Pineapple calaboose. This man, one Stewart, had so far forgotten himself as to threaten white persons with bodily injury. Some of the "most prominent citizens" of Pineapple decided thereupon to teach him and his people "their place." Storming the calaboose, they practised various indignities upon him, winding up by knocking him on the head and setting fire to the calaboose, so that there should be no need of a funeral. Unfortunately for Pineapple, the flames—"reinforced by God's disapprobation," the colored people say—spread from the calaboose to a feed store, next to a wagon repair shop, then to the bank, until in the course of their triumphant progress they laid a large part of the town in ashes. Then there was a sudden realization that lawlessness, after all, did not pay, and men who had merely "grunted with satisfaction" at the killing of a nigger "grew blind with fury" at the results of the mob's work. In consequence, five of the leading citizens have been on trial before three justices, charged with the murder of the negro prisoner, Stewart, and the town is filled with excited people from the surrounding country divided into two camps—those who favor the lynchers, and those who mourn the destruction of Pineapple's most important business streets.

The decision of the United States Steel Corporation last week to omit entirely this quarter's payment of dividends on the common stock, must have impressed the financial mind less forcibly than the company's statement of earnings. The passing of the dividend was an inevitable consequence of diminished earnings. To put the matter briefly: net receipts for the closing quarter of 1903 decreased $17,141,000 from the same quarter in 1902—a shrinkage of 53 per cent. For December alone, the record showed a decrease of $5,500,000, or 64 per cent. Payment even of a dividend of ½ per cent. on the common stock would have called for $2,700,000, which would have been nearly one-fourth of the year's entire surplus after routine depreciation charges. In fact, if interest and depreciation allowance, this past quarter, had borne due proportion to the similar expenditure reported for the twelvemonth, then no dividend was earned, even at the reduced rate of the preceding quarter. Under such circumstances, it would have been folly to pay it. It must frankly be admitted that this is not a reassuring showing; but it must also be kept in mind that conditions, during the past quarter, were unfavorable in a degree which may not again be experienced. Open discussion of reduction in the price of steel, actual secret reduction by competitors, and rumors, current from time to time, that trade agreements might be abrogated and general price-cutting ensue, all had their place in the trade's history for the quarter. It would have been surprising if orders for steel had not fallen to nominal figures under such circumstances. With this must also be considered the fact that labor cost was still at the high level of the trade's most prosperous months, and that the export orders, whatever they may turn out to be, had not yet made their influence felt.

The Steel Corporation is meeting the situation as it should be met. The company's real danger, a year or two ago, lay in rash acceptance of a belief that the mere fact of consolidation in the trade had done away with the violent fluctuations in consumers' demand which have always marked the history of the trade. Such a theory begins to do mischief when it is used as an argument for a too large paying-out of surplus in dividends and for increase of bonded debt. The company's action on its common-stock dividend, and its peremptory stopping of conversion of stock into mortgage bonds, are the best guarantee of a wiser policy in the future. Nor should the management's courage in laying the quarter's return of earnings before the shareholders be overlooked. The great importance of the example set in

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this matter by the Steel Corporation to other industrial combinations again invites attention to this point. It is not as agreeable to publish poor earnings as to make such brilliant showing as that of a year ago. But we are firmly convinced that the company's situation is the stronger because of this publication. Let it, for instance, be imagined that, when the common dividend was passed, all official information as to earnings had been refused. Where would the Steel Corporation, or any of its securities, have stood then?

Mr. Chamberlain is not the kind of a man to let his chagrin be seen, but he must have realized Thursday that some days are dark and dreary. Two such events between sunrise and sunset as the rumored return of the Duke of Devonshire to the Liberal party and the Board of Trade statement for the year 1903, would have struck most men in his position as a case of piling Pelion upon Ossa. The position of the Duke since October 5 has been so anomalous that his reported agreement with Lord Rosebery should excite no surprise. To one of his methodical mind the rôle of a free lance is distasteful. Though he is ready to break with his party on a question of principle, he is not built to wander about in the cold. His resignation from the Ministry three months ago was a blow to the Balfour-Chamberlain policy, the effect of which, however, would have been greatly impaired if he had retired to sulk in his tent, or had decided to wage guerrilla warfare. But the Duke is like a party platform in the United States—he is disposed at times to "view with alarm" the proceedings of public men. He did so in the case of Mr. Gladstone and Home Rule. Evidently, if rumor correctly represents him, he thinks the present crisis as alarming as the previous one, and as calling for another *volte-face*. But the significant fact is, that the Duke never goes anywhere politically without a host of followers. Mr. Chamberlain can spare him, but not his retinue. The doubled Liberal majority in Thursday's bye-election indicates as much.

The Board of Trade figures leave Mr. Chamberlain in a ridiculous light. He has been proclaiming from the housetop that British trade is on the road to ruin, but the official figures show that the total foreign trade of the nation in 1903 was greater by $125,000,000. And, most amusing of all, of the $56,042,685 increase in exports, $36,772,100 is contributed by manufactures alone, although the owners of British mills and foundries were supposed to have lost their grip on the world's market. Possibly when the itemized figures appear they will show that this gain in the exports of manufactured goods was in the colonial trade. But what difference does it make where your market is? The profits from the colonial trade are, there is every reason to believe, as good on a given amount of business as from that, say, with the United States. It is also rather hard on Mr. Chamberlain that of the increase of about $74,000,000 in imports, less than $11,000,000 represents manufactured goods. In short, the figures tally with what may be considered a very sound condition of British industry.

With the Duke of Devonshire and Mr. Chamberlain fighting for the possession of the Liberal-Unionist party, that organization obviously plays the part of the corpse in a Homeric combat. The rights of the matter are all with the Duke, who, fearing that the Liberal-Unionists may be dragged into the fight for fiscal reform, demands that a party which has served its purpose should be decently buried. Mr. Chamberlain, on the contrary, is sure that the name and good will of Liberal Unionism are still worth something. So he plans to galvanize the opponents of Home Rule into some semblance of tariff reformers. To the Duke's reminder that the Liberal-Unionist party is hopelessly divided on the fiscal issue, he replies with a challenge to a test of strength. Mr. Chamberlain seldom makes vain boasts—for domestic consumption; and it is very likely that he feels comfortably sure of a protectionist majority. But he must see clearly that Liberal-Unionism converted into protectionism would no longer have even a name to live, and that the change could not be managed without arousing very costly animosities. When Mr. Chamberlain builds up a new party in the open, no one may gainsay his right; when he humiliates his old leaders to gain control of a moribund organization, he takes counsel of mere pugnacity. It would be a disastrous triumph to take the high hand with the free-trade Liberal-Unionists. Already many of the Conservatives, notably Mr. Goschen and Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, have strained every point not to oppose the Government. But not even their warm feeling for Mr. Balfour would hold them to neutrality if Mr. Chamberlain makes fealty to himself the sole test of Unionist loyalty.

It need trouble no loyal Frenchman to learn, as the dispatches announce, that Joan of Arc was of Italian extraction, for the pedigrees of heroes and heroines probably are very seldom of racial purity. Dante himself, we are told, came of German stock, while Napoleon, for that matter, was only a Corsican. If the French were to renounce all foreigners who have won fame as Frenchmen, their pantheon would be decimated. The more serious attack upon Joan's fame is not the assertion of foreign ancestry, but the attempt to make her a saint of the Roman Catholic Church. To be sure, St. Louis fairly holds his own in an anti-clerical age, but this canonization is so old that it may be winked at. It would be otherwise if the Maid of Dorémy were to be canonized now. The anti-clericals might insist on omitting her name from the school histories, and some very bad paintings that depict her martyrdom might be removed from public buildings. At present Joan is merely beatified—a distinction, in French eyes, not unlike the possession of a minor decoration, say the *palmes académiques*. But her canonization seems imminent, and the gaining of a saint is hardly to be compared with the loss of a national heroine. Accordingly, the Pope should be advised before he advances Joan out of all popularity. Possibly the sagacious Pontiff counts upon chauvinism to offset the drawback of the Church's approval. It will always remain true that Joan harried the English mercilessly and that they slew her shamefully.

The report, apparently confirmed in international banking circles, that the Russian Government's application for a loan at Paris has been unsuccessful, is a striking incident in the diplomacy of the Eastern crisis. If, as the banking community believes, facilities have been withheld by the Paris bankers at the instance of the French Government, a situation would be shown to exist which would go far to explain the present attitude of France. It has been no secret that the French press and people have for some time been asking, a little querulously, what France is getting out of her relations with Russia, compared with what she gives. Thus far, the one tangible outcome of the Franco-Russian *entente* has been the placing of French investment capital freely at Russia's disposal, when occasion for one of that country's periodical borrowings arose. It is not to be supposed, even if the bankers' view of the French Government's attitude is accurate, that the discouragement of loans to Russia now is a sign of unfriendliness. It may, however, be part of a policy which is using every expedient to prevent hostilities in the Far East. But, on the other hand, it does not appear that a similar restraint, by financial methods, is being placed upon Japan. No announcement has been made regarding that country's purposes or opportunities, in the matter of borrowing from Europe; but advices from Lombard Street are in notable contrast with the Paris reports just noticed. London appears to take for granted the providing, in its own market, of the requisite credits for Japan. This happens in face of the fact that London is already overburdened with its own "undigested securities," while Paris is so abundantly supplied with capital that it is lending unusually large sums in London.

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AN INTERNATIONAL LIBERAL PARTY.

It was a shrewd and just remark recently made by Prof. William James, to the effect that questions of justice between nations and peoples pass swiftly nowadays beyond the bounds of the countries immediately affected. The sense of outrage at sight of oppression quivers round the world. Defence of the oppressed—be they Jews or Finns, Macedonians or Filipinos, South Africans or South Americans—is a matter of international concern. Something like a consensus of humane and liberal minds has come to be established the earth over. It has no recognized organs, no committees, no machinery; but it everywhere leaps to reinforce conscience, to stay the stroke of brutality, to argue the cause of the weaker. In the presence of this world-wide body of enlightened opinion, it is well for those struggling for the right in any given land to lift up their eyes and see with what a cloud of witnesses they are encompassed, and how their hands are held up by the wise and good of all nations. We may afford to drop local names, such as Anti-Imperialists or Pro-Boers, for the sake of enrolling ourselves in this grand army of humanity.

The existence of what we may call an international Liberal party, impalpable but powerful, set for the enfranchisement and safeguarding of all mankind, is forced upon our notice whenever an act of injustice looms large upon the world's horizon. What instant sympathy the English minority had from the United States in their protests against the subjugation of the Dutch republics! And it has been repaid with interest. Messages from the best opinion of England were never wanting to those Americans who spoke up for justice to the helpless Filipino. Nor are they lacking to-day, when it is again a question of our mighty Government setting at naught the rights of a feeble nation. Very unpleasant reading for President Roosevelt and Secretary Hay have the most weighty British newspapers recently contained. An English publicist, who has given a thousand proofs of his friendly feeling for this country, writes us of the pain which the "amazing" course of Mr. Roosevelt towards Panama has caused him. It is the international jury bringing in its moral verdict.

There is more than a coincidence in the fact that this universal knitting together of humane instincts thus reveals itself. It is the Old Guard of Liberalism closing up the ranks. When militarism and the strong arm are everywhere asserting themselves, as against law and considerate good faith, it is but natural that they who are of one mind against this policy of force should feel their solidarity, and act, so far as they are able, upon their common principles. At any rate, the way in which one deep of humanity answers to another, across territorial lines and regardless of estranging seas, is among the most striking signs of the times.

While the champions of fair dealing and equal justice are thus united by invisible bonds in a kind of international freemasonry, the believers in the mailed fist and the big stick are singularly at odds. Instead of supporting, they revile each other. In order to compound for their own sins in that kind, they heartily damn the similar deeds of another. Thus, our own Jingoes were among the loudest in condemning English aggression in South Africa. It is a kind of tribute which hypocrisy feels compelled to pay to virtue; it cannot refrain from the wrong itself, but it will soundly rate others who are guilty of it. And, of course, the foreign Jingoes pay ours back in their own coin. They resent the criticism of a fellow in iniquity. At the moment when Mr. Chamberlain was most violently attacked in the American and German press, he proudly drew himself up and said: "As I read history, no British Minister has ever served his country faithfully and at the same time enjoyed popularity abroad." That is the true provincial, the truly barbaric, note. We shall doubtless hear it echoed by American newspapers and politicians apropos of Friday's dispatch from Colombia praising those Senators who stand firmly at Washington for the rights of the weak. "Yah! You are popular in Colombia. That proves that you must be bad Americans." There must be no more inquiry than Chamberlain would allow, whether there is a question of morality and of justice involved. Just a raucous whoop—"Popular abroad! Now what have you got to say for yourselves?"

Against such unthinking and savage cries international Liberalism stands and will stand. The oscillation of the past few years has seemed to make brute force and commercialism triumphant, but the swing will be the other way, all in good time. Till then lovers of freedom and justice can do little but protest and agitate and educate and—wait. But they have no occasion to feel mortified over their comparative isolation and impotence. As Taine wrote to his friend, it is not the few thinkers and moralists who perceive the truth and cling to the right for whom one ought to feel sorry, but rather for those who go with the multitude to do evil.

GOVERNOR ODELL AND THE CANAL.

Governor Odell's plan to raise money for canal enlargement is the most important part of his message. In reviewing the work of the State Government, he offers a number of suggestions, some of them excellent; but they relate mainly to routine matters. His recommendation, for example, that our prisons be remodelled and their sanitary condition improved, will be endorsed by every humanitarian and penologist. His advocacy of a law to prevent the future construction of grade crossings is equally sound. These subjects, however, are secondary, for he has bestowed more thought on the canal, and his scheme will provoke eager discussion.

His way out, we regret to say, strikes us as impracticable. The problem is to raise $101,000,000. The two common solutions would be either a tax or a bond issue. Certain economists regard bonds as wasteful and unwise, because the interest charges, which may exceed the principal, are, from one point of view, a dead loss; because, also, the postponement of payment may blind taxpayers to the recklessness of expenditures and swamp a State or city with debt. Yet, in spite of the advantages of paying as you go, the established policy in this country has been bonds for permanent improvements, so that future generations may share the burden for roads, parks, and buildings which they enjoy. Accordingly, it had been generally supposed that an eighteen-year bond was contemplated. Such was the idea in the minds of voters when they cast their ballots. Any plan which immediately increased the pressure of taxation might have been defeated. As to this fact there can be no dispute: Governor Odell, in his last message, talked of the amendment to the Constitution so as to provide a bond issue and avoid "excessive taxation." In his speeches to the farmers last autumn he explained the very light tax needed to carry the bonds.

It is, therefore, surprising to have him say to-day, "While the referendum provides for a yearly direct tax and the payment of the debt in eighteen years, I am sure that the general expectation is that some other method may be devised." He then proceeds to an elaborate statement, which, in brief, is this:

(1.) Pay the entire cost of the first five years' work without resorting to bonds, by the expedient of raising an additional $5,500,000 per annum by indirect taxation.

(2.) Divide the large payments during the last five years (assuming that ten years will be required for construction) into two classes: (a) $5,500,000 per annum as before, from the State revenues; (b) the remaining $50,000,000 raised by annual levies of $10,000,000 each on the counties. In return, give the counties for use in their sinking funds State bonds which shall bear cumulative interest, not payable annually, but on redemption.

(3.) In the decade following the completion of the canal, pay off the bonds given to the counties by the State revenues, raised as before by indirect taxation.

Result: Canal paid for in twenty

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years; direct tax on counties refunded; large interest payments avoided; saving, estimated by Governor Odell, $41,790,000.

This saving is, of course, an item worth considering. Governor Odell urges it with the economic arguments already referred to. Nevertheless, there are obstacles which render the device unworkable. In the first place, it is too complicated to be understood by many members of the Legislature; and to the average voter it would be hopeless confusion. He could not grasp it, and would suspect it to be a bit of financial jugglery. In the second place, if he grasped it, he would condemn it; for it would mean, virtually, the raising of $10,000,000 annually for five years by county levies, and he would be no happier under this load than under a direct tax by the State. The counties might, as Governor Odell suggests, issue bonds instead of discharging the levies in cash; but here again is a return to deferred payments and interest—and a plunge into "perplexed and intricate mazes." Add to these objections the necessity of two Constitutional amendments—as the Governor himself admits—and the project has scarcely a leg to stand on.

But, granting that the Legislature would be complaisant, the voters approve, and the amendments pass, there is still the trifle of securing $5,500,000 by indirect taxation. On the success of this effort everything depends. Last year the Governor wrote:

> "The money for payment of principal and interest of the debt could be met by a dividend tax upon the capital stock of manufacturing corporations, which would produce about $2,400,000, and by modifications of existing revenue laws by slightly increasing the rates affecting others than corporations."

He now wants to raise annually about $2,500,000 more than would be required for mere interest charges and sinking fund. This crucial point he passes lightly over in the phrase, "assuming that new revenues will be provided," but he gives no hint as to the source of these new revenues. Where are they to come from? It is doubtful whether there is any source from which $5,500,000 can be raised by indirect taxation. If there be such a source, the Governor should name it. At present he occupies the singular position of advancing a plan for raising $113,750,000—including interest—without a word as to where the first $5,500,000, or, indeed, the whole sum, is to be found.

Should the Legislature accept his idea seriously, we should have an endless debate as to ways and means, delays necessitated by further amendment of the Constitution, and possible bedevilling of the whole undertaking. It seems certain that no one who is not at heart an enemy of the improvement and anxious to see it abandoned, will turn from the plain and simple method of a bond issue and a small direct tax to meet the interest. Any other course is full of danger to the canal.

THE RUSSIAN AND JAPANESE FORCES.

Whatever might be the eventual outcome of hostilities between Japan and Russia, the army and navy of the David of the Eastern nations would begin a campaign with very considerable prestige honestly earned in the war with China, and enhanced during the relief of the legations in Peking. Of all the allied troops which entered China in 1900, the Japanese won the highest praise from military observers for bravery and dash, combined with sobriety, good discipline, and efficiency of transport. The officers had their men well in hand, and cared for their simple needs with surprising forethought. And the intelligence of the enlisted men was second only to that of our American soldiers.

This is one of the most important of the advantages possessed by the Japanese. Stout fighters as the Russians demonstrated themselves to be in the Turkish campaigns of 1877 and 1878, capable as they are of withstanding hardships certain to overcome less sturdy troops, they could not enter into a struggle with Japan with the zest and enthusiasm which would inspire their rivals. For the latter the struggle would be almost one for freedom and independence, with everything depending upon the celerity and intelligence of the first movements for the war. Excellently trained and organized as the Japanese army is, it can at best but number 430,000, of which 250,000 were available for foreign service in 1900. That it is weak in cavalry is generally admitted. Writing in the *Journal of the United States Cavalry Association* of a visit to a Japanese cavalry regiment, Capt. C. D. Rhodes of our new General Staff last year declared that "the Japanese cavalry is, in efficiency, far behind the infantry and artillery, which, as we know, are of the first rank." This he attributed largely to the lack of proper mounts, Japan being wofully deficient in draught and cavalry horses of proper size. But it is characteristic of the admiration of American officers for the Japanese army that Capt. Rhodes recorded his belief that only a few years would elapse before the cavalry would be on a par with the other arms.

American observers of the Russian troops in China in 1900 formed a very low opinion of their military value. "The treatment of the men is of the poorest," says an English critic, who admits, however, that they are thereby soldiers inured to the severest hardships. Just how many the Japanese would have to face in Mantchuria, it is extremely difficult to estimate. Before the Boxer campaign there were 35,000 troops in eastern Siberia. The First and Second Siberian Army Corps, which could in time be called upon, number about 150,000 men and 286 guns. Additional reinforcements might bring the total Russian forces in the East to 200,000 men, widely dispersed over a very considerable extent of territory. Should Japan dominate at sea, as is confidently predicted by the best professional opinion, she would be able to land a force far outnumbering any army which Russia might assemble within the next four months. There can be little doubt that the size of the various Russian garrisons has been greatly exaggerated.

But the chief weakness of the Russians would be in their communications with their base of supplies—European Russia. Should Japan control the seas, they would have to fall back upon the Trans-Siberian railway—a frail, single-track line, badly built, and badly managed, and interrupted by Lake Baikal. Moreover, it is extremely vulnerable and would call for large protecting forces, as would the Mantchurian garrisons, for it must be remembered that Russia would have to fight in a practically hostile country, which would itself have to be overawed. Obviously, therefore, Russia would strain every nerve to control the sea, for the double purpose of drawing supplies by water and preventing the landing of Japanese troops in Mantchuria or Korea.

But, on the water, the advantage would seem to lie with the "Yankees of the East." The Russian navy is without experience in war, and is as destitute of efficient naval bases and repair yards of use in winter as the Japanese are well provided with them. Accustomed as the Russians are to cold-weather operations, they cannot in this respect surpass their possible enemies. Commander Francis M. Barber, U. S. N., who accompanied the Japanese torpedo boats to Port Arthur in the zero weather of the 1895 campaign, could not say enough in praise of the extraordinary hardiness and endurance of their men. The Japanese personnel as a whole has received the highest praise from European critics. "Their crews are inspired by the keenest spirit of zeal and patriotism." The judgment of their officers is "marked by courage, capacity, and admirable resourcefulness." The standard of discipline is that of the British navy, by many of whose officers the Japanese sailors have been instructed. Sir William White, the eminent English authority, has summed them up by saying that "they have shown themselves fully equal to the great responsibilities involved in using during war as well as peace a fleet replete with every modern improvement in machinery, guns, and equipment."

So far as the numerical comparison between the Russian and Japanese ships

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in the East or en route is concerned, the Russians have the advantage, particularly in battleships. But their heaviest vessels are of widely varying types and speed, and far less homogeneous than the Japanese. Only three of their armored cruisers can be said to be up-to-date, though they possess at Port Arthur a very large and well-reputed flotilla of torpedo boats and destroyers. For the Russians the best move in the event of war is thought in many quarters to be a concentration of their fleet in the Gulf of Pechili. As long as it was intact and a large military force was at Port Arthur, the Japanese could enter Mantchuria only by way of Korea, a long and difficult route to the objective of any land campaign—the cutting of the Trans-Siberian railway. That these problems have been carefully studied by the Japanese General Staff is notorious. Nor can it have overlooked the importance of striking quickly after a declaration of war.

THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTION.

The second Year-book of the Carnegie Institution contains the complete record of its work to date, and it appears that what the administrators have left undone is quite as significant as what they have done. They have been in no haste to appropriate the whole income. In a little more than a year they have voted for research, publication, and office expenses $182,130—less than two-fifths of the income of the fund. Applications from investigators to the amount of $2,200,398 lie before them, grants recommended by the Advisory Committees run to $911,500. This total demand of $3,111,898—supposing even that many of the requests are frivolous—shows that the Carnegie Institution has not been carrying its coals to Newcastle. The small total of actual grants as compared with the applications proves that the fund is being distributed in the most conservative spirit, and upon mature deliberation.

We pointed out, on the publication of the first Year-book, that the fund was gradually being appropriated to the use of natural sciences to the exclusion of *litteræ humaniores*. Nothing in the present Year-book requires us to change that comment. Out of total appropriations of $182,605, $20,000 was allotted to ethnology, archæology, bibliography, etc. Astronomy, geology, and physics took the lion's share of the funds, with biology not far behind. Projects of especial interest now approaching realization are the establishment of a desert botanical laboratory at Tucson, Arizona, and the preparations for a geological survey of eastern China. Wholly in the spirit of Mr. Carnegie's donation is the assumption of the 'Index Medicus' by the Institution. This great bibliography was begun in 1872 by Dr. John S. Billings and Dr. Robert Fletcher, but was discontinued twenty years later for lack of financial support. It is a case where the appearance of Mr. Carnegie *ex machina* has justified the faith of the authors, while the Institution has been happy in finding a great and needy work ready to its hand. A commendable clause of the deed of foundation required the Carnegie Institution to coöperate with existing learned bodies, supplementing rather than rivalling their work. Pursuant to this ideal, the trustees have maintained twenty tables at the Marine Biological Laboratory at Wood's Hole, and have made grants of $1,000 each to twenty-five "research assistants" in as many colleges and universities. In these grants the scientific bias already noted is very apparent. Three beneficiaries are psychologists, one is an economist, one a historian; the other twenty were all scientists.

But the preponderance of science in the councils of the Institution is shown most clearly in the specific recommendations of the Advisory Committees. Physics desires $250,000 per annum—half the fund; geo-physics would be content with a yearly $150,000; astronomy has two projects calling annually for $80,000 and $150,000. Compare with these suggestions such faint-hearted requests as $45,000 annually for psychology—a scientific subject, properly speaking—and $17,500 for history. Archæology would turn out to have similar modest claims if the $120,000 asked for "exploration" were analyzed. The conclusion is inevitable: either such subjects of research as archæology, art history, philology, history, philosophy, economics, are already so comfortably provided for as to have no claim upon Mr. Carnegie's support, or else the Institution is not at present so organized as to give these historical studies a hearing. An examination of the miscellaneous applications not sanctioned by the Advisory Committee shows a similar preponderance of scientific interest.

It would clearly be unfair to prejudge the course of the Institution until it is in full operation. With the unappropriated three-fifths of the fund it would be possible to set the balance straight. What we wish to observe is a tendency, rather than a danger. It is evident that the great scientists stationed at Washington have too exclusively the ear of the trustees. The absent are always wrong, say the French; and the representatives of art and literature are generally absent from Washington. Indeed, the Carnegie Institution is in some risk of seeming to narrow its scope by an embargo. The trustees have resolved that no grant should be made for logic and metaphysics. It may be that no worthy project in these fields lay before them, but the time might come when logic or metaphysics might have quite as deserving a collective enterprise to offer as a desert laboratory or a geological survey.

What the historical sciences need is a spokesman, and for this reason the trustees are to be commended for printing in the Year-book Professor Seymour's report on excavation sites in Hellas, and Mr. Raphael Pumpelly's preliminary survey of the trans-Caspian region. Professor Seymour has recently travelled through continental Greece, Asia Minor, and the Ægean Islands. He finds at Corinth, Thebes, and Antioch opportunities for major excavations of the first importance; in the Spartan region small sums devoted to the study of ancient seaports and trading routes might cast new light upon the relations of Greece with the more ancient East. Here lie possibilities as definite and promising as, say, the investigation of aluminum alloys. Mr. Pumpelly's report suggests an historical mystery to solve—that of the ancient Mongol Empire, which had its seat in what is now Turkestan. Students of Asiatic civilization know vaguely that between Chinese civilization in the East and Arab and Persian culture in the West there are many connecting links. Did we know more definitely of Genghis Khan and Tamburlaine, many historical problems would approach solution. Mr. Pumpelly reports that tumuli are frequent in this region, and the sites of buried cities well known. Sven Hedin, in his recent exploration of the country, found inscriptions, and there is good hope that manuscripts are safely preserved under the desert sands. Is not the writing of this unwritten chapter of history as important as the investigation of double stars or cryptogams?

But comparisons are superfluous. The body of the sciences is made up of many members, all of which are honorable. What we wish to emphasize, as we congratulate the Carnegie Institution upon its auspicious beginnings, is that a generous grant to such projects as those outlined above will prove to all critical well-wishers that the new Institution is to be no mere auxiliary to science in the narrower sense, but rather the impartial promoter of all studies that tend to interpret nature to man and man to himself.

THE TWO JOANS.

All visitors to Paris recall Frémiet's spirited Joan of Arc, which closes so proudly the Rue des Pyramides. But only the more observant will have noticed that this famous equestrian statue has assumed an unfamiliar look; indeed, Parisians have only recently made the discovery. Joan's creator has very frankly owned up, and the metamorphosis of the monument now constitutes a very interesting case in art history, and raises unusual questions in the border-line of æsthetics and ethics. In a word, Frémiet had long chafed under the general criticism of his masterpiece. Re-

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port has it that he haunted the little Place de Rivoli and eagerly listened to the chaffing of the crowd. Gradually the artist came to the conviction that the crowd was right, that the contrast between the slender, steel-cased girl and the clumsy war-horse was excessive. We are ready to believe that such self-criticism is not uncommon among the great artists. But Frémiet went further and began a second Joan. It was chance that favored the substitution of the amended work for the old. The digging of the subway in the Rue de Rivoli made it necessary to remove the old Joan to Frémiet's studio. The new Joan soon guarded the Rue des Pyramides. All this was done without a by-your-leave to the officialdom that has French art in charge, and a mystified Paris wavers between admiration of the *coup de main*, indignation over broken red tape, and regret for the old Joan, who, departing, gains partisans even among those who had scoffed.

It is a signal assertion of the inalienable right of the artist over his work. That was a paradox which the late Mr. Whistler delighted to defend, denying with Olympian assurance that the passing of a few guineas could ever alienate an artist's rights in his own creation. Evidently, M. Frémiet felt that the city of Paris merely held his statue in trust, subject to his discretion. Very likely such a rule might be conceded without causing a general removal of civic landmarks. Rather few sculptors, for example, are likely to reclaim their equestrian statues. The liberty would hardly be abused. But the question is less that of a more or less theoretical right than of the advisability of altering essentially a finished work of art. Does or does not the public gain a kind of vested interest in its old Joans which the artist is bound to respect?

Writers have generally given an emphatic negative, treating the public with cavalier indifference. Did not Mr. George Meredith leave out dearly loved digressions when he revised 'Richard Feverel' and the others? Has not Mr. Joseph Conrad rewritten favorite short stories into novels? Poe perhaps was the classic offender in this sort, selling the same materials to half a dozen papers, and leaving his editors in confusion as to which form represented the author's choice, which showed his impecuniosity. Tennyson, like most poets, suppressed his juvenile verse with unsparing hand, while our own Whitman cut so deeply into his 'Leaves of Grass' that the appendix of rejected readings serves the faithful as well as the poems themselves. It may be recalled, also, that what is admittedly the finest passage of Lowell's "Commemoration Ode" was a retouch, though contrariwise Whittier may be most happily remembered by the admirable hymns that other hands have extracted from his long poems. Enough for literary revision. Copyright and public taste give it the fullest latitude. From Chaucer down, the poets have had to be read in parallel columns.

Yet it must be feared that this tolerance of emendation rests, not on general zeal for improvement, but on ignorance that any change has been made. Many of us, one may suspect, would read our "Hamlet" in the abridged first quarto without greatly missing the best passages in the play. Such indulgence the painter or sculptor will rarely have. A chapter may be inserted or withdrawn from a book; a cubit can hardly be added to the stature of a portrait without attracting somebody's attention. A casuist would argue from this that there are peculiar opportunities for duplicity in the literary art as compared with painting or sculpture. But the fact seems to be merely that the appeal to the eye is simpler than that to the intellect. The work of art readily becomes a kind of public possession. In a sense, it seeks the public, while a book must be sought. The penalty, then, of working for the greater public is loss of control of the artist's work. It ceases to belong to him; admiration or mere habit establishes the claim of the man in the street. Of course, there are painters whose work is in a constant state of revision and their patrons in corresponding postures of desperation or expectancy. But these are not the men who will ever paint the walls of our civic buildings, adorning them for all time. It is best that the artist should feel that his work is deeded to those who care for it, while the work of art is so distinct an entity that it has a kind of right to continued and unaltered existence. No artist need fear to stand on his complete work, even on the least satisfactory to himself. Time does the work of selection when the old Joans give grounds for repentance; a truly philosophical sculptor would much sooner forget than mend them. M. Frémiet's generous ruse seems to come of the oversensitiveness of a mind too much given to retrospect.

THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION AT NEW ORLEANS.

NEW ORLEANS, January 2, 1904.

Two years since, at the meeting of the American Historical Association, Charles Francis Adams made the suggestion that the Association might very properly give its attention, in some measure, to the discussion of questions of practical political interest; that it might, by introducing the scholarly and the historical spirit into such discussions, raise the intellectual level on which political campaigns are ordinarily conducted. Except for his own address on "An Undeveloped Function," this suggestion has apparently led to nothing. The Association has not entered into practical politics by formally discussing the political issues of the hour. Indirectly, however, the meeting of the Association just ended in this city has, perhaps, done something to achieve the object that Mr. Adams had in mind. Whether political or not, there are now before the people of the United States great practical questions, one of which certainly centres in Southern conditions, and of which the Southern point of view is different from that of the North and the West. The best hope for the satisfactory solution of questions that are in any measure sectional, the best hope for raising the discussion of them, when they are discussed, to a higher intellectual level, is the sympathetic appreciation by each section of the position of the other. It is not too much to say that the "race problem" will be much farther advanced towards a satisfactory solution when the people who do not live in the South really understand this "problem" as it presents itself to the Southern people, than it is now. To this end the meeting of the Historical Association here has contributed something. Whatever might be accomplished by such formal discussion as Mr. Adams suggested, probably much more can be accomplished to achieve the object he had in mind by developing this other "function" even farther than it has been developed—the function, namely, of bringing together, in the different sections of the country, the leading teachers of history from every section, who, we may remind ourselves, sometimes have very creditable notions on practical political questions; and, if they do not always like to embalm these notions in formal papers, are yet human enough to discuss them judicially and otherwise among themselves.

In the more ordinary meaning of the term, the meeting at New Orleans was an unusually good one. If the attendance, in point of numbers, was not so satisfactory as it sometimes has been, in point of quality it was above the average, and decidedly so in its representative character. From the Far East and the Far West the representation was certainly better than might have been expected. If the Middle West and the South did not exceed expectations, the former sent as many as usual and the latter naturally many more. The formal programme was a good one, though longer than usual—longer, indeed, or rather more crowded, than seemed altogether desirable. While the twenty-minute limit was quite generally observed, the number of papers was often sufficient either to extend the sessions or to exhaust the interest of the audience unduly. On the other hand, that twenty minutes is altogether too short a period for the satisfactory development of the subjects presented was frankly asserted by many who read papers within that limit, and tacitly admitted by others who, in order to observe the rule, were forced to omit a part, and sometimes the best part, of their contributions. Finally, the number of papers and the frequent sessions gave, in the opinion of many, a somewhat too formal character to the meeting. Informal discussion was, indeed, tried in two of the sessions; but discussion of this sort ordinarily proves unsatisfactory precisely because it is informal in name only. The common result of making provision for it is the mere addition of a number of shorter, but equally formal, papers to the programme. Really informal and spontaneous discussion is absent, and, it is true, is with difficulty evoked in connection with a formal paper. But this, precisely, is the

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strongest objection to the long programmes and the numerous sessions.

The conditions for emphasizing and developing the social side of the meetings were very favorable at New Orleans. There were the fascinations of the city itself for every student of history, and the genuine Southern hospitality extended by its inhabitants to the Association, the altogether charming effect of which was to give to each member the impression that he individually had been made free of the city. In words of welcome and in acts of service, no less than in Southern skies, there was a warmth that in no place left any ice to be broken, whether it acted upon frontier independence, New England exclusiveness, or metropolitan polish. In this respect the visitors to New Orleans will not soon forget the Louisiana Historical Society, Tulane University, the Round Table Club, and other societies, and many citizens whose active kindness brought them into direct relations with the Association and its members. Peculiarly apt was the selection of the Cabildo, the old Spanish State-house fronting Jackson Square, for the initial meeting. With equal appropriateness the opening session of December 29 was devoted to the Louisiana Purchase, the final consummation of which took place in that building, and to the several phases of the history of Louisiana Territory. Professor Sloane's paper, on "World Aspects of the Louisiana Purchase," furnished the proper background. Briefly and clearly, Mr. W. W. Howe traced the history of the Civil and Common Law in the Territory, showing how each has been made to supplement the other until there is no longer any conflict between the two in essential principles. To prove that New Orleans was far from being disaffected towards the United States at the time of Burr's expedition was the aim of Dr. McCaleb's paper. Secretary Thwaites told, and with his usual success vivified, the story of the Lewis and Clark Journals, and pointed out the importance of the promised publication, probably within the year, of these records, wholly freed from the transforming influence of Biddle and the interpolations of Dr. Elliott Coues. By a happy coincidence, during the reading of Dr. Shepherd's paper on the Spanish Archives the commander and officers of the Spanish cruiser *Rio de la Plata* came in, and were introduced to the audience, which greeted them by rising. After the session they were the special guests at the luncheon served to the Association in the Justices' rooms of the Cabildo, where they were entertained under some linguistic difficulties, lightened greatly, and in some cases perhaps enlivened, by the English of the guests and the Spanish of the hosts.

During the afternoons, when there was no regular programme, many visitors explored the French quarter, which centres in the Cabildo and Jackson Square, formerly the Place d'Armes. Within easy reach are many places made famous by history or fiction, from the Cabildo itself and the old cathedral to the "Haunted House." The evening was given to the customary joint session with the Economic Association at Newcomb College. In the address of welcome, President Alderman of Tulane University spoke of the Old South and the New. The New South is characterized, he said, as the old was, by an intense loyalty to certain ideas. The Old South was ready to die, and did die, for State sovereignty. The New South is equally ready to die for a new principle—the principle of "race integrity." The South desires the welfare of the negro—desires it, perhaps, rather more than the North. It will put no obstacle in the way of his advancement, but two things it will not submit to—social equality and political control. Sectionalism is gone forever, unless it can be "galvanized into life again by the joint efforts of Senator Tillman and the Union League Club," and the "race problem" can best be solved by time and silence.

After a searching analysis by Professor Seligman of the social elements in economic law, the address of President Lea was read by Professor Haskins of Harvard. The address put into clear and convincing form the ideas that are at the basis of the best historical work now being done in this country and in Europe. Mr. Lea began by dissenting from the notion that it is the province of history to illustrate any system of ethical principles or to teach conventional moral doctrines. If history proves anything, it proves that there are no fixed ethical conceptions. The only standard is in the individual conscience, and that standard changes from generation to generation, from age to age. The duty of the historian, therefore, is to reconstruct the past in as close approximation to the reality as may be. To understand by investigation, to explain how an institution came to be what it was at any given time and how it was transformed in response to the needs of a new environment, to comprehend a great historical personage from his own point of view and that of his age, to show that he was the product of his age, and why, probably, he could not have been different—this is the whole duty, the highest possible privilege, indeed, of the historian. All that is vital in the historic conception, all that makes valuable the serious study of history, was clearly set forth by Mr. Lea, himself a recognized master.

Of the many excellent papers read in the subsequent sessions there is no room to speak in detail. From the conference on the teaching of history in the South, one learned that the difficulties there are such as in the main exist nearly everywhere—indifference, lack of money, lack of sources and of books. The papers of Wednesday evening and Thursday morning indicated the growing interest in the history of territorial expansion, and in a more critical study of the Constitution. On Thursday evening Professor Giddings read in part and in part summarized his paper on the relation of sociology, economics, and history. From the half-serious discussion that followed, it appeared that the sociologists think historians have been so busy perfecting a method for finding things that they do not know what to do with what they have found; and that historians think sociologists are merely giving new and attractive names to that once active but long-since defunct something called the Philosophy of History. On Thursday afternoon the annual business meeting of the Association was held at the New St. Charles Hotel. The principal action, aside from routine business, was the abolition of the church-history section, the organization of a Pacific Coast Branch Association, and the establishment of a new prize, out of the Herbert Baxter Adams Fund, to be known as the Herbert Baxter Adams prize. Goldwin Smith was elected president for 1904.

THE ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION AT NEW ORLEANS.

NEW ORLEANS, January, 1904.

It is safe to assume that for many years to come the sixteenth annual gathering of the American Economic Association held during the Christmas recess will remain vivid and distinct in the minds of those who attended it, as "the New Orleans meeting." An easy restrospect of the Association's scientific sessions of the past ten or twelve years summons back, mournful to relate, not this particular presidential address nor that profound discussion, but such material circumstances as the isolating snowstorm of the Indianapolis meeting, or a memorable smoker of the Ithaca assembly, or cherished midnight reunions in the Cosmos Club of Washington. But this is, after all, an old story, for the reading of papers, whatever their content, is but a "leave to print," and it is personal contact and mental attrition and professional stimulus that bring scientists together from the four quarters, often at no mean cost of time and effort; and it is as these ends are or are not attained that, reminiscently at least, the game seems worth the candle.

In plan and scope the New Orleans meeting was easily the most ambitious in the history of the Association. A joint meeting with the American Historical Association in the lower South; a special train from New York, affording tourist stops at Richmond, Atlanta, Montgomery, Mobile, Chattanooga, and Luray; a programme giving prominence to the discussion of Southern agricultural and industrial problems by recognized experts—were not only planned in detail, but realized with brilliant success. Many persons and influences contributed to this end; but more than to any other single factors are they due to the energy and administrative capacity of President Seligman, at one end, and the enthusiasm and devoted effort of the chairman of the local committee, Professor Aldrich, of Tulane University, at the other.

The meeting opened actively on December 29 with a series of admirable papers and discussions on Southern agricultural problems. Tobacco, sugar, rice, and cotton were in turn reviewed by such specialists as Mr. Lawson H. Shelfer, tobacco expert of the United States Department of Agriculture; Mr. William C. Stubbs, Director of the Louisiana Sugar Experiment Station; Mr. S. A. Knapp, President of the Rice Association of America, and President D. F. Houston, of the Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas. Particular interest attached to Mr. Shelfer's statement that both the Cuban filler tobacco and the Sumatra wrapper could be produced in the United States by proper selection of soil and climatic conditions; and to Mr. Knapp's authoritative account of the development of rice culture in Louisiana and Texas since 1885, and its extraordinary economic possibilities for that region and for the country at large.

But withal it was the boll weevil that held the centre of the stage. No feature of the meeting was more instructive or impressive to the Northern members in attendance than President Houston's description of the

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pest, and his conclusion, based upon the experience of Texas, that it is probably useless to attempt to exterminate the weevil or even to arrest its spread, and that the hope of a profitable crop must be sought in the use of improved methods of cultivation. A less resigned attitude was taken by Louisiana experts, who announced the intention of that State to wage a vigorous fight against the weevil by State resources, in cooperation with prospective Federal aid. The point was very well made that improved methods of culture, however possible with the white labor of Texas, were impracticable in any large way in Louisiana and throughout the cotton belt, and that if this constituted the only remedy, the situation was really hopeless, and a permanent decrease in the supply of cotton, with its attendant calamities, must be anticipated.

The afternoon session was devoted to a consideration of the industrial problems of the South, and suffered somewhat by comparison with the brisk, tonic quality of the morning's papers. Mr. D. A. Tompkins of Charlotte, N. C., and President Charles C. Thach of the Alabama Polytechnic Institute, reviewed the cotton industry, and Mr. Richard H. Edmonds, Mr. C. E. Vawter, and Mr. Stuart Wood took a general survey of Southern economic problems.

It is not depreciating the two presidential addresses to say that President Alderman's speech of welcome looms up as the striking feature of the joint session with the American Historical Association, on Tuesday evening. In warmth and intensity of feeling, in vigor and beauty of phrase, and in precision and depth of thought, it was a remarkable deliverance. It enunciated the doctrines of racial integrity and white supremacy in the South, free of all sophistry and in uncompromising vigor; but with a context that raised the whole to the dignity of an intellectual manifesto and an historical document. It is much to be hoped that the address will find early and independent publication.

President Seligman's address on "Social Aspects of Economic Law," although profound and scholarly to a degree, struck a narrower note than his memorable paper on "The Economic Interpretation of History" at the Washington meeting, or than his first presidential address on "Economics and Social Progress" in Philadelphia. It is not easy even for the most fruitful mind to conceive a universal message in three successive years, and a real contribution of limited range is always to be preferred to a thin generalization. "The subordination of the individual to the social element in economic life" was President Seligman's text, and the domain of public finance his field of illustration. American students of finance have been bewildered by an apparent conflict between theoretical doctrine and practical application. Thus, the faculty theory of taxation seems to be in flat contradiction with the recent history of American finance. The opposition is, however, apparent rather than real, and is due to the fact that we have put the emphasis upon the individual rather than the social aspect of economic law. The corrective must come through a more careful study of taxation based on the existence of economic law, with particular reference to the shifting and capitalization of taxation. Withal, Professor Seligman's attitude was high optimism, in some contrast with the general trend of his earlier writing in this direction:

"Our American system is therefore moving in the right direction. We do not levy our so-called indirect taxes indiscriminately as of old; but, apart from the tariff, the importance of which is only secondarily fiscal, we limit the subject of Federal taxation to a very few articles of widespread consumption. We no longer, in our most advanced States, attempt in practice to levy a general property tax, but are content, as is almost true in New York to-day, with State taxes levied not on individuals, but on inheritance and corporations. Finally, while in local taxation we still hold to the theory of a general property tax, in practice we are fast coming to the well-nigh exclusive taxation of real estate."

Wednesday morning's session, on economic theory, was probably the most stimulating and scientifically useful of the meeting. The basis of the discussion, a carefully thought-out review of "The Relations between Rent and Interest," by Professor Fetter of Cornell, had been printed and sent some weeks before to the participants in the formal debate—Professors Carver of Harvard, Hollander of Johns Hopkins, Keasbey of Bryn Mawr, Taylor of Nebraska, Dr. McFarlane of Philadelphia, and Mr. Whitaker of Leland Stanford. The result was a series of compact, incisive criticisms that were distinctly worth while. Professor Fetter's contention, in continuation of his earlier studies and in line with the writings of a group of modern critics, was that the classical distinction between rent and interest was relative to the peculiar conditions of English economic life in the first quarter of the nineteenth century, that it finds no warrant in modern industrial organization, and that if the old terms are to be retained in economic terminology it must be in association with new concepts. The conspicuous fact revealed in the discussion of the paper was an astonishing reaction from the hypercriticism of recent theories of distribution back to at least the confines of the classical theory. Not since Professor Marshall broke a mighty lance in defence has there been a more signal "rehabilitation of Ricardo" than this discussion suggested. Incidentally, the debate afforded a successful test of the plan of devoting an entire session to the consideration of a single controversial paper on economic theory, printed and circulated in advance.

A meeting of the Council and delightful social engagements took up Wednesday afternoon. The evening's session was given to corporate and public finance, with papers on "The Management of the Surplus Reserve," by Professor Meade of Pennsylvania, discussed by Professors Grey of Northwestern and Hatfield of Chicago; on "The Theory of Loan Credit in Relation to Corporation Economics," by Dr. Norton of Yale, with a diverting discussion by Professors Cleveland of New York and Farnam of Yale; and on "The Relation of Federal and State Finance," by Professor Goodnow of Columbia, with discussion by Professors Daniels of Princeton and Plehn of California.

"The Trust Problem," with the principal paper by Prof. Henry C. Adams of Michigan, and formal debate by Professors Farnam and Emery of Yale, Meyer of Wisconsin, Rossignol of Denver, Robinson of Illinois, Dr. Bemis of Cleveland, and Mr. Theodore Marburg of Baltimore, offered an inviting programme for Thursday morning's session. Professor Adams's paper was in the main devoted to a disproof of the four lines of argument which figure prominently in current justification of the existence of exclusive industry. The propositions thus successively assailed were: first, Trusts are the result of natural law, and therefore a healthful industrial evolution; second, the economic law of competition persists, no matter what be the form of industrial organization; third, Trusts are productive, and should receive our approval as labor-saving devices; fourth, common-law principles already provide remedy for any conceivable abuse of the liberty of contract. Passing on to a so-called "solution" of the Trust problem, Professor Adams urged that any satisfactory programme of reform must not content itself with dealing with Trusts in a formal manner, but must touch the underlying causes of industrial consolidation, as involved in our systems of education, transportation, and labor organization.

The discussion of the paper disclosed characteristic diversity of opinion, inclining on the whole to a more conservative and less depressing estimate than that suggested by Professor Adams. But both paper and discussion evidenced how much economic theory has yet, in this one direction, to do. Until scientific analysis shall have determined with greater precision the general trend of modern industry, and shall have indicated, more convincingly than heretofore, an assignable limit to the size of the modern industrial unit, any radical legislative programme for Trust regulation seems proximate and insecure.

The meeting terminated brilliantly in a second joint session with the historians. The principal paper, by Professor Giddings of Columbia, on "The Relation of Sociology to History," was entertainingly discussed by Professors Small of Chicago, Cooley of Michigan, and Ward of the Smithsonian for the sociologists, and by Professors Emerton of Harvard, Burr of Cornell, and West of Michigan for the historians. In this battle royal the share of the economist was the traditional fate of the would-be peacemaker in a turbulent household. When reciprocal belaboring began to weary, historian and sociologist suspended hostilities long enough to join forces in common abuse of the economist. A little more real than puppet of straw, a degree more worthy than scholastic controversy, the residual of such debate seemed no larger, and a future generation will surely appraise it as idle and profitless.

Any account of this most successful of meetings which should omit reference to the gracious hospitalities showered upon the Association from arrival to departure, would be a bloodless chronicle. It is not possible to enumerate even a considerable part of those from whom genial courtesies were received. But none who were Mrs. T. G. Richardson's guests on Wednesday afternoon will ever forget the exquisite beauty of that tender picture of a by-gone social life. The Creole stories at the Round Table Club's "smoker," the excursion on the Mississippi, with stops at Chalmette and at a great sugar "central," the session in the Cabildo, the strolls, "conducted" and otherwise, in the Vieux Carré, the snug little dinner-parties in delightful Old World restaurants, and the reunions and discussions that lasted far into the night in out-of-the-

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way corners—all these will linger long and fragrantly.

The business affairs of the Association were found in a very satisfactory condition. The Council voted an expansion of publication activity, and coöperation with the economic inquiries of the Carnegie Institution was authorized. Chicago was selected as the place of meeting in 1904, with the expectation of coming to Baltimore in 1905. Professor Taussig of Harvard succeeds to the presidency. J. H. H.

Correspondence.

THE CHICAGO FIRE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Whatever details an investigation of the Iroquois Theatre disaster may bring out, the significant fact remains that it was due to the gross neglect of existing ordinances on the part of the police and building departments of the city. This neglect was known, tolerated, and tacitly approved by the Common Council, a body legally elected by the voters of the city. Sifted to the last analysis, it will be found that some six hundred innocent people, mostly women and children, lost their lives because the general public does not appreciate and understand the necessity of electing competent men to public office. The genesis of the popular notion that election to office endows a man with the appropriate mental and moral attributes of that office, is an enigma to students of psychology and political science. Qualifications palpably necessary for a position of trust and responsibility in private affairs are, for some inscrutable reason, waived by the general body of voters in electing a man to a position immeasurably more important in public affairs. Is this a survival of the old belief that the king can do no wrong, and possesses by virtue of his office miraculous and superhuman characteristics, or that the laying on of hands transmutes an ordinary mortal into something infinitely superior, or that the accolade makes the chivalrous knight? Whatever the origin of the notion may be, it is plain that it exists and flourishes in full vigor in democratic America, and will die very, very hard.

Indeed, it seems to be a law of human nature that every step in advance in political science must be taken literally through pools of human blood. When one sees in front of a recently built, officially inspected, and formally licensed theatre a truck wagon, hurriedly pressed into service, filled so high with corpses that the powerful horses could not start the ghastly load without the assistance of the police, it comes home, at least to those of us who have lost friends in the fire, that reform is needed. Within the last few months murder and assassination in broad daylight on public highways as a result of labor disputes, the picketing of funerals, and the stoning of ambulances and hearses, have excited, as it were, a ripple of mild astonishment in the public mind that such things could really be. To stir the complacent and optimistic American public it is not enough to point out examples of public plunder, weakness and laxity of administration, or moral turpitude in legislators; what the public has to have before it in order to stir it from its apathy towards municipal reform is the sight and smell of fresh, warm human blood. The blood of the martyrs is the seed of reform.

E. L. C. Morse.

THE NEGRO IN NEW ORLEANS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial, "Mr. Schurz on the Negro Problem," which appeared in the *Nation* of December 31, makes it apparent to Americans at the South that the *Nation* shares the same vindictive spirit common to almost all Northern writers whenever the race problem is discussed. It is clearly within the right of the *Nation* to offer any criticism of the South's treatment of the negro which it sees fit. It is more within its right to offer advice tending to the solution of this problem, and Southerners interested in its solution would hail with delight a single sincere suggestion. But this the *Nation* does not attempt. It merely vilifies the South, after misrepresenting conditions by phrases such as "Every door of hope opening into the professions is slammed in the face of the black men because they are black," "Pro-slavery ideas are again asserting themselves," and citing isolated cases as Southern sentiment.

An unprejudiced investigation of conditions will show these statements, even if founded upon fact, to be grossly exaggerated. There is no door closed to the negro in the South except the door to social equality, of which you say the South is in "silly dread." Is it meant that social equality is impossible, or that it is not dreadful? The Deity closed the door to social equality, and it is not given to man to open it. If God had meant the negro to be the white man's equal, would he not have made him *white?*

The city of New Orleans, which does not pose as a model, can give ample proof that the negro is offered every opportunity for his betterment. Here the negro children are educated in schools supported by taxes which are paid almost entirely by white people. There are five or six colleges and universities supported by private contributions, and by the local and general governments, where negro men and women are taught the higher branches. Negro physicians receive their education here, and practise without interference. There are negro lawyers who daily practise their profession, one of whom stands out prominently and enjoys the respect of all Orleanians; and this is the Far South. If we do not invite him to our homes, that is a matter of personal taste (since we do not live in the Executive Mansion), and is nothing to any one else.

In conclusion, allow me to say that we are not monsters, thirsting for the blood of innocent negroes, but men who know from our fathers what Southern civilization is, and that it falls upon us to protect our race, our civilization, and our name, be the cost what it may.

Harry Prentiss Sneed.

New Orleans, January 4, 1904.

[We recall that it was from New Orleans we received, not long ago, a letter enclosing official testimony (or what was deemed such), expressly obtained from Nashville, in disproof of our perfectly well-founded statement that a skilful colored dentist in Nashville had many white patrons. This horrible fact acted on the Southern imagination like the simple luncheon at the "Executive Mansion." That a white man should consent, for his own relief from pain and for the care of his teeth, to prefer the best colored to the best white service because the latter was inferior, was too shocking for belief, and every effort was made to obtain the name of the practitioner—certainly not for his worldly comfort and peace of mind.

Mr. Sneed's is also the second letter within a week that we have received from a Southern source—friendly in both cases—which ends in visions of bloodshed. As our New Orleans reporter of the late meeting of the American Historical Association shows on another page, a welcoming university president could not keep his hospitable hands off of bloody graves. The only attacks on "race integrity" that we know of were made during the existence of slavery. The only demands or entreaties that we hear of are for justice and fair play. Why are these met, even in sane and enlightened circles, by threats of a fresh civil war and a fresh blood-letting on a grand scale? As well attempt to argue with the master of twenty legions. —Ed. Nation.]

EARLY MAPS OF LOUISIANA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The writer came recently to New Orleans in search of material for an historical subject which he is investigating. Among other valuable material, he finds at the Howard Memorial Library a notable collection of maps illustrating the cartography of Louisiana. This collection is the property of the Librarian, Mr. William Beer. The fact that nowhere outside of Washington is so complete a collection to be found, leads the writer to lay before the readers of the *Nation* a brief notice of its character.

The collection consists of some two hundred mounted maps, in loose sheets, and of about fifty atlases. The whole ranges in date from the end of the sixteenth century down to 1878. The majority, however, belong to the eighteenth century. Roughly speaking, the collection corresponds to the list of maps of Louisiana described by Justin Winsor in the fifth volume of his 'Narrative and Critical History of the United States,' although there are many examples not mentioned by Mr. Winsor.

Certainly, the student of the historical geography of Louisiana will find nowhere better conditions for examining a valuable collection of rare maps than at the Howard Memorial Library. He will have a room and a large table placed at his disposal, and he will find Mr. Beer courtesy and kindness itself in placing all in his hands without restriction. The winter months bring many visitors from the North to New Orleans, and it is the hope of the writer that some among them will not leave the city without having seen this little-known collection.

B.

New Orleans, January 3, 1904.

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LIONS FOR *THREE* PRESIDENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Crandall, in his very amusing letter published in this week's issue of the *Nation*, overlooks a still earlier precedent from the same source. On January 6, 1834, President Jackson says, in a special message to Congress of that date:

"I communicate to Congress an extract of a letter recently received from R. J. Leib, Consul of the United States at Tangier, by which it appears that that officer has been induced to receive from the Emperor of Morocco a present of a lion and two horses, which he holds as belonging to the United States. There being no funds at the disposal of the Executive applicable to the objects stated by Mr. Leib, I submit the whole subject to the consideration of Congress for such direction as in their wisdom may seem proper."

In what manner the embarrassed Consul "held" his charges does not appear from the message, but Jackson adds, with characteristic directness, that instructions have been given to all ministers and consular officers that "they will not under any circumstances accept presents of any description from any foreign state," unless previously authorized by Congress.

Cannot some one tell us the subsequent history of these lions? C. H. LEE.

RACINE, WIS., January 9, 1904.

TRANSLATIONS OF ISOCRATES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As I am the unfortunate "hack writer" denounced by Professor Cook in your issue of December 31, I feel that I owe to my publishers and the public the penitential exhibition of myself in the pillory of your epistolary column for the edification of friends and the exhilaration of those otherwise minded. My case is the harder that at the moment when the Devil prompted me to pen the wanton statement that Isocrates had never been translated into English, there was standing within ten feet of my elbow a bibliographical manual from which I could have transcribed nearly all the erudition with which Professor Cook dazzles your readers. But I very much wanted an *index* to Isocrates; I had never seen or wished to see a translation. I was eager to make my next point that he would be (is) intolerable stripped of his Greek garb, and I gave myself hopelessly and irremediably away.

Let me save my main contention from the ruins. Isocrates is of interest to the professional student of Greek style, to the specialist in Greek history, to the investigator of Aristotelian origins, to the Platonist who wishes to measure the altitude by which Plato towers above the flats of the commonplace moral sentiment of the fourth century B. C. But in himself he is a platitudinous rhetorician, and his writings, regarded as mere literature, are the abomination of desolation and would be intolerable in an English version. On this point I throw myself upon a jury of my peers and confidently anticipate acquittal; and I challenge peremptorily all venire-men who have not read Isocrates through three times within the past year.

As I am in a sobered and moralizing mood, permit me to raise a question of ethics, or rather of taste. One naturally points out blunders in a book which he reviews. If the book is hopelessly bad, one "slates" it. To the *Nation*, as an organ of the collective intelligence, one sends any new nugget of fact or rectification of errors that may interest its readers. But does one go out of his way not merely to rectify but to denounce slips in dissertations, articles, or books not under review? Are we, following the example set by Professor Francke a year or two ago, to send to the *Nation* our marginal notes on the doctor's dissertations produced under the supervision of our colleagues—when they venture to publish them? Shall I, to compare great things with small, proclaim that Professor Jebb could not have read Andocides, in view of certain misstatements which I have noted on the margin of his 'Attic Orators'? Errors, of course, ought to be corrected. But how?

PAUL SHOREY.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, January 5, 1904.

BEN JONSON ON USAGE IN LANGUAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In considering the question how far neologisms may be admitted into literary English without degrading the style, Ben Jonson's views are perhaps worth remembrance. He says:

"Custom is the most certain mistress of language, as the public stamp makes the current money. But we must not be too frequent with the mint, every day coining, nor fetch words from the extreme and utmost ages, since the chief virtue of a style is perspicuity, and nothing so vicious in it as to need an interpreter. Words borrowed of antiquity do lend a kind of majesty to style, and are not without their delight sometimes. For they have the authority of years, and out of their intermission do win themselves a kind of grace like newness. But the eldest of the present, and newest of the past language, is the best."

I am, sir, etc., WM. HAND BROWNE.

BALTIMORE, January 8, 1904.

Notes.

The Macmillan Co. will shortly publish 'The Reformation,' in the Cambridge Modern History; 'Transitional Eras in Thought,' by Prof. A. C. Armstrong of Wesleyan University; 'Life of Jeremy Taylor,' by Edmund Gosse, in the English Men of Letters series; 'Points at Issue,' by Prof. Henry A. Beers of Yale; and 'The Divine Vision, and Other Poems,' by "A. E."

A pretty reprint for the holidays was Thomas Moore's 'Odes of Anacreon,' with reproductions of designs by Girodet de Roussy (G. P. Putnam's Sons). These vignettes, if they lose something in sharpness, are graceful adjuncts to the letterpress. They have each a page to themselves, being mounted.

A welcome selection from Jowett's translation, 'The Four Socratic Dialogues of Plato,' with the Master's analyses and introductions, and with a short but pithy preface by his successor, Edward Caird, proceeds from the Oxford Clarendon Press (New York: Henry Frowde). The get-up is what we expect from this house, and the volume is a handy one of less than 300 pages.

The same publishers bring out once more William Rossetti's edition of Shelley's 'Adonais,' revised with the assistance of A. O. Prickard, M.A., of New College. As compared with the previous issue of 1890, more attention has been paid to the classical sources of the poem, while the parallel passages from authors ancient and modern have been multiplied. The apparatus, including memoirs of Shelley and Keats, is six times the bulk of the text.

A dozen years have compelled Mr. George G. Chisholm to exchange occasional patching for an extensive revision and rewriting of his admirable 'Handbook of Commercial Geography' (Longmans). The general character of this work received careful consideration and exposition at our hands on its original appearance, and it is now unnecessary to do more than advertise the fact that it has been brought up to date in a period of active change. Besides a new preface, there is a special introduction to this edition that well deserves to be pondered. Mr. Chisholm points out, as others have done before him, that the Panama Canal does not mean for this country a shorter way to the East, but only between the Atlantic and Pacific coasts of our hemisphere. He refrains from discussing the burning question of preferential tariffs, but draws up a table of exports from the United Kingdom from 1843 to 1890, which is remarkable for constancy, in spite of fluctuations. Even in the case of the group France, Belgium, Holland, Germany, Sweden, and Norway, the ratio is unchanged for the two extremes of the above period; nor is there anything alarming in the decline in the direction of the protectionist group, France, Germany, Italy, Russia, and the United States. "Our commerce during the last ten or twelve years has, on the whole, still continued to increase." Mr. Chisholm has wisely retained the older tabular series, supplementing them. Among his acknowledgments of assistance, the chief is given to a lady, Miss J. B. Reynolds, B.A., holder of a diploma from the Oxford School of Geography.

A collection of sixty-odd plates after Sir Joshua Reynolds, with a brief biographical sketch by A. L. Baldry and a "List of Principal Works" of the artist, is issued under the printer's name as the first number of the "Newnes Art Library," of which Frederick Warne & Co. are the New York publishers. Such a publication, modest in aim and sufficiently so in price, might have its value if the plates were only well executed, but, unfortunately, they are not. So far are these reproductions from the grayness which is generally considered the besetting sin of half-tone work, that they are violently crude and disagreeable in their extreme black and white effect—almost everything beyond the high lights being so lost in impenetrable shadow that the design and meaning of the picture are often nearly indecipherable. We must also protest once more against the mingling of reproductions from old engravings with those from the original pictures, especially when, as here, this is done without warning and without credit to the engraver. Such action is, to use plain English, an imposition. Considering all this, the best we can say of the little book is that a good idea has been spoiled in the carrying out.

The Washington *Post's* folio 'History of the City of Washington, its Men and Institutions' is typical of many such works in the personal portion. Here, classed under sundry heads of Early Church History, Educational Advantages, Financial Inter-

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ests, Railroads, The Press, Bench and Bar, Representative Men, etc., are biographical sketches with portraits and views of buildings, carried to such intimate details as that "Mr. and Mrs. ——— are active members of Calvary Baptist Church and Sunday-school, and have a family of three daughters," while "Mr. ——— is a devoted lover of music, and possesses a fine voice that might have brought him a handsome income upon the stage." This is the journalistic side. The historical, which has been carefully edited by Allan B. Slauson of the Library of Congress, is also abundantly illustrated with views and maps. In sum, there is a mass of chronicle and present-day information sufficient to render this work valuable for reference, but chiefly in public libraries. No literary claim can be made for it.

The volumes of the New International Encyclopædia (Dodd, Mead & Co.) are now appearing with such rapidity that any notice of them must be of the slightest; yet it is to be hoped that this speed—produced, apparently, by pressing competition—may not handicap accuracy and finish. That encyclopædias cannot be built in one year, or ten, has been learned painfully by European publishers, and American energy may well be wary in applying the methods of hustle to so delicate and difficult enterprises. And that this caveat is not uncalled for is evident from some phenomena in the four volumes recently issued (xi.-xiv., Larrey—Rice-bird), three of them together. Can it be by some gigantic, yet hardly conceivable, carelessness that the same map occurs three times, under New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward's Island? Of course, it is very handy to have a map for immediate reference, but if such prodigality was the intention of the publishers, the expense would have been much better devoted to three, separate and larger-scaled. Further, misprints are still too numerous. They invade even the headlines—almost as bad as that supreme typographical unluckiness, a misprint on a title-page—and run up to at least twelve on one page, 974 of volume xiii. And the pity of it is that these things, so preventable in themselves, disfigure a book which is showing with every volume steady and laudable improvement. As an encyclopædia of American interests for American readers, it is undoubtedly the best and fullest in existence. The number of articles rising above the hack level is increasingly large. Both contributors and, more important still, editors, are exhibiting conscientiousness and care. No fear of competition or plea of business interests should be allowed to hinder the finish and patient revision which a work like this inevitably demands.

It must be confessed that the last volume of the Dent-Macmillan "Mediæval Towns" series, that on Seville, is a great disappointment ('The Story of Seville,' by Walter M. Gallichan, with three chapters on the artists of Seville, by C. Gasquoine Hartley, illustrated by Elizabeth Hartley). Matter enough there is in the Moorish, Spanish town overlooked by the Giralda and the great cathedral, the birthplace of Velasquez and Murillo, dim with memories of lines of splendor-loving Muslim princes, of Pedro the Cruel and Maria de Padilla, of Ferdinand and Isabella, of Cervantes and Columbus. The Silver Street runs down the Guadalquivir from the Golden Tower and links it with the Indies; the roads of Spain stretch inland and link it to the life and thought of the whole peninsula, from Roman times to ours. And so the historian and describer of such a city has need of wide learning. There are no materials with which an agile and discreet compiler can work; the story of Spain has not yet been told. That has still to be drawn from sources hardly opened, Saracen and Spanish alike, and a Spanish scholar has recently lamented that the fictions and blunders of Conde have not even now ceased to exert their unhappy influence. Yet a student of Arabic as was Dozy, and a student of things purely Spanish as there are many, might write on Seville a book to dream over. Of that there is no touch here. Only the chapters on art have any value or even life; they will act as a somewhat extended Baedeker for the tourist. Perhaps he may be helped also by the chapters on Seville of to-day and information for the visitor, but that is a more open question. The illustrations are good, but not numerous; there are some curious misprints.

English translations of Persian poetry in any degree adequate are of the rarest, and therefore the 'Hundred Love-Songs of Kamal ad-Din of Isfahan,' rendered into prose by Dr. L. H. Gray of Princeton and thence into verse by Mrs. E. W. Mumford (London: Alfred Nutt; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons) may be welcomed at sight. A second sight leads further, for the translation is most sympathetic and graceful, and handles easily Kamal's characteristic wealth of idea. Of course we have here, in these *ruba'iyat*, nothing like FitzGerald's magic art, nor does the original strike Omar's deep human note which bore paraphrase so well. Kamal was a singer of "the strange woman" and of the bitter tenderness of such passion, not of the eternities. His quatrains have here been handled freely—expanded and, apparently, condensed—and are arranged, in spite of their independence in the original, into a more or less connected whole.

The American Law Book Company issues, as a separate publication, 'Collision at Sea,' being the article under that heading, by Mr. Julian Bedford Shope of the New York bar, in its 'Cyclopædia of Law and Procedure.' Mr. Shope discusses every phase of his subject briefly, but clearly, from the standpoints of statute, custom and decision, strengthening his position by ample quotations of precedent. With the history, the romance, and the tragedy of collisions at sea he has no concern. The loss of the Collins Line *Baltic* or H. M. S. *Victoria* would be to him simply a case "and nothing more." An index of cases cited would have been helpful. Even the sailor would do well to study this excellent brochure, which defines his duties and responsibilities under every conceivable circumstance. As for the practising admiralty lawyer, it is quite indispensable.

The Year-Book of the Bibliographical Society of Chicago, 1902-'03, indicates a pause in this organization's growth and activity, due to a lack of membership and funds. It will undertake no other publication this year except the present pamphlet of proceedings, whose permanent value lies in the abstract of a paper on the libraries of Rome and their facilities for the student; some notes on the bibliography of the history of philosophy; others on the bibliography of mathematics; others still on Italian communal history. Further, Mr. William Beer calls attention to the existence and history of the New Orleans Academy of Sciences.

In its cover of green and gold, the third Annual of finance and economics is published (in French) by the Mikado's Minister of Finance in Tokio. The large pamphlet of 172 pages gives a conspectus of resources well worthy of the detailed and critical study of the financier. The elaborate tabulation enables one to take in at a glance the development of Japanese revenue from $16,000,000 in 1868 to $125,000,000 in 1903, and the expansion of foreign commerce from $10,000,000 in 1873 to $129,000,000 in 1902. Chapters and figures on Formosa will interest the student of colonization, for they seem to show encouraging progress from the financial point of view. Space does not permit a detailed notice, but we must call attention to the beautifully executed map of the empire, showing all the railways projected or completed, and the entire system of submarine telegraphs and marine postal routes and steamer lines, not only with Formosa, Korea, China, and Russian Asia, but also with Europe, Australia, and North America. In a word, the commercial relations of Japan with the world are now established with her own ships. Twenty tables, with lucid comment, treat of agriculture and commerce. Ten more deal with foreign trade. Other divisions, with detail of text and statistics, show Japan's banking system, and her railway and steam-navigation companies. The introductory matter of three pages gives the latest corrected figures as to the coast line, geographical limits, and population, which in 1900 was, in round numbers, 45,000,000. The old plan of taking yearly enumerations has been abandoned in favor of a decennial census, which, it is expected, will be wrought out with scientific exactness, fulness, and elaboration. On the basis of the steady annual increase of half a million, the Mikado's subjects, including Formosa and the Pescadores, cannot now number much below fifty millions.

—The four years 1588-1591 in Manila are very adequately covered by the documents reproduced in Volume VII. of 'The Philippine Islands, 1493-1898' (Cleveland: The Arthur H. Clark Co.). Here we have the question of *encomiendas* and tributes from the natives pretty well threshed out, with the sharp-tongued Bishop Salazar chief advocate for the natives. Unfortunately, he hurts his own case with posterity, and disturbs somewhat our conviction that he speaks the truth as to the abuses perpetrated on the natives, by his recklesssness of speech, his partisan attitude toward all who did not bow to his prestige, his lawless use of threats of excommunication. We begin to suspect that the Spanish laymen in the islands were not so utterly bad, but that a contest for supremacy over the natives had something to do with the quarrel, especially when the Jesuits (who, like the Augustinians, were discriminated against by the Dominican bishop) virtually accuse him of permitting his priests to live too well off the natives and of burdening them with undue marriage and burial fees. The tribute controversy will be finished in Volume VIII. Besides these contemporary

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disputes, Volume VII. contains Friar Juan de Plasencia's 'Customs of the Tagalogs," one of the few standard documents for reconstructing Preconquest Filipinodom. Scholars new to the subject, however, should be warned against relying implicitly upon it as an ethnological document of first rank. In selection of material and in minor details, this work improves as successive volumes appear. Why, however, should the English text contain, within the limits of one hundred pages or so, such varied renderings of "Philippine Islands" as "Filipinas Islands," "Philippinas Islands," "Philipinas Islands," "Phelipinas Islands," "Phelippinas Islands," etc. If it is desired to show the various Spanish spellings of the time, let them be put in brackets; but the phrase "Filipinas Islands" ("Filipinas" being a feminine plural adjective in Spanish) is a barbarism in English.

—Two more volumes of the current 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon' (New York: Lemcke & Buechner) carry this perennial work on from *Bismarck* to *Differenz*. The leading articles, respectively, are (in III.) Books and (in IV.) Germany *(Deutschland)*. The former is beautifully illustrated with facsimiles, as of Gutenberg's 42-line Latin Bible of 1455, and also in the field of bookplates. Germany is exhibited in a brave series of maps, physical, climatic, linguistic, confessional, historic; others, again, showing density of population, the garrisons of the armed camp called (Christian) Western Europe, the diffusion of Germans on the Continent, and of Jews in Germany; finally, the Imperial colonial possessions in Africa. There is a bird's-eye view of German literature in periods, along with the usual description of the country and the course of its history. The other maps in these volumes partly relate to Germany—as Brandenburg, Bremen, Charlottenburg, Chemnitz, Danzig, and partly have a world-wide interest, like the excellent one embracing the imminent theatre of war in the Far East—China, Japan, and Korea—together with another, on a larger scale, of Pechili and Shantung; a map of international maritime trade routes; one of Brazil and Bolivia, showing the disputed *imperium in imperio* of Acre, and Southern Brazil, a new Germany.

—American purchasers will find convenient the maps of Cuba, Jamaica, and Porto Rico, of Chicago, etc. American affairs in the text continue to show the need of a competent overhauling, to eliminate the biographic deadwood, and to effect a proportionate and intimate treatment. We will instance the space allotted to James Freeman Clarke, Cassius M. Clay (whose death occurred too late to be caught), and Cropsey the painter; the allotment of one-sixth of the space given to Boston and its map to the game of Boston; the neglect of other biographies of John Brown than Von Holst's sketch; the omission of the Brooklyn Bridge in the plans and views of these structures, though the projected North River Bridge is represented; the very inadequate sketch of ex-President Cleveland, and the dismissal of his second Administration as devoid of incident when it woke (over Venezuela) the fatal war-flame that swept us presently into imperialism. Five pages are given to Dante, and seven to Darwin and Darwinism. Byron gets two and a half to Browning's three-quarters. Whereas the 'Dictionary of National Biography' allows George Combe the phrenologist half a page more than Andrew, Meyer mentions him only as his brother's biographer. We must not forget to remark the increasing number of inserts (with Roman folios) illustrating practical topics like steam boilers, bread-making machinery, plate-working tools, springs and wells, plans of the world's bourses, etc.

—The 'Memoirs of an American Lady,' by Mrs. Grant of Laggan, appeared in London ninety-six years ago. Between 1808 and 1876 the book was reprinted six times, four of the six editions bearing the name of an American publisher. Within the past few months it has been edited once more by the author's godson, Gen. James Grant Wilson (Dodd, Mead & Co.), under whose care the text is presented in handsome form and supplemented by an excellent sketch of Mrs. Grant's life. As a literary *tour de force* the 'Memoirs of an American Lady' merits some notice from the present generation. The subject is Mrs. Philip Schuyler, a woman who possessed, along with cleverness and force of character, a great power of inspiring affection; but the remarkable thing is that the book should have been written when Mrs. Grant was fifty-three years of age, and forty years after she had left America. In other words, the biographer was only thirteen when she said farewell forever to this friend of her girlhood; yet the colors of the picture are fresh, and its historical interest is considerable. Mrs. Grant knew Albany as it was in the period between the close of the Seven Years' War and the outbreak of the Revolution, when the Mohawks were still a feature of the neighborhood, and when the spirit of political restlessness was beginning to disturb the colony. Her father, Capt. Duncan MacVicar of the Seventy-seventh Regiment, owned a tract of land in Vermont, which, of course, was lost during the Revolution, and with it vanished any hope that his daughter might have cherished of becoming an heiress. Mrs. Grant, however, was made a Tory not by personal misfortunes, but by nature. She loved Albany for "the morality, simple manners, and consistent opinions of the inhabitants," but the rise of American democracy filled her with dread and dislike. We refer here to the general reflections which are called forth by the train of events that began shortly after she returned to Scotland in 1768. To her, Franklin is merely a high priest of Plutus, "the legitimate father of the American 'age of calculation.'" Hamilton, she admits, is an exception—"yet, after all, an exception that only confirms the rule. What must be the state of that country where worth, talent, and the disinterested exercise of every faculty of a vigorous and exalted mind were in vain devoted to the public good?—where, indeed, they only marked out their possessor for a victim to the shrine of faction?" We mention this attitude of mind because it is so characteristic of the author, a thorough-paced Tory if ever there was one, and yet a Tory who could love the individual Whig, as she loved Jeffrey in later days. Her account of colonial life in New York was highly esteemed by Washington Irving and James Paulding. The present edition will doubtless rouse fresh interest in both Mrs. Schuyler and Mrs. Grant.

—Julian Ralph's 'The Making of a Journalist' (Harper's), is an entertaining book derived mainly from the writer's experience. His theory of the journalistic career is that all courses of study are useless and impracticable, except with a view to editorial work, and even then the would-be editor should begin as a reporter. But how do people obtain an opening for reporting? According to Mr. Ralph, a young man nowadays who wants a position on a newspaper, and has only his wits to help him to it, should walk the streets until he sees "something novel or peculiar," and then describe it and offer his account to the best newspaper in the place. This may be a good way, but that such advice is offered seriously shows what journalism in our day is. What Mr. Ralph has in mind is almost altogether "sensations" and "stories." Newsgathering he thinks no longer of importance as a help to youngsters desirous of getting hold of a "beat," because all really important news is now gathered by the press associations. The book is enough to make Greeley and Raymond stir in their graves. Their idea that a newspaper might be made by editing, and that everything else would follow in the train of good editorial work, has become, in Mr. Ralph's world, the height of absurdity.

—'Comments of John Ruskin on the Divina Commedia,' compiled by George P. Huntington (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), is an attractive volume of some two hundred pages, composed of scraps from Ruskin's works in which reference is made to Dante. Nearly all the selections are taken from books published between 1852 and 1886. Although Ruskin did not really know Dante until he was twenty-six, he became and remained a diligent and appreciative reader of the 'Commedia,' as we may see from the frequent allusions in his subsequent writings. Like most readers, he was apparently unfamiliar with Dante's minor works; of the great poem, the part he knew best was the "Inferno," and he was least acquainted with the "Paradiso." Professor Norton, in a brief "Introduction," discusses both the kinship and the profound differences between the ancient Florentine and the modern Englishman, showing how the one affected the other. Then we have some pages of Ruskin's general observations on Dante, after which come the comments on individual passages. These remarks, though generally interesting and stimulating, are seldom of particular value to the student of the 'Commedia': they throw more light on Ruskin than on Dante. Occasionally, however, we are led to consider a passage from a fresh standpoint, as when, on page 200, we are told of Dante's dislike of clouds. Repeatedly Ruskin contrasts Dante and Milton, always to the detriment of the latter; the 'Paradise Lost' is most searchingly criticised on page 17. Botticelli's illustrations to the 'Commedia' receive well-deserved praise. "Flaxman's outlines to Dante," on the other hand, "contain, I think, examples of almost every kind of falsehood and feebleness which it is possible for a trained artist, not base in thought, to commit or admit, both in design and execution."

—**The Oxford Reader in Egyptology, Mr. F.** Griffiths, has recently been examining, in the light of monuments and inscriptions, several of the paradoxes of Herodotus con-

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cerning the eccentricities of Egyptian customs. Herodotus fares at Mr. Griffith's hands much as he has recently been faring under Mr. C. F. Adams's treatment of the problems of Salamis. It seems that the Father of History often yielded to a Hellenic temptation to describe as Egyptian any custom that was strange. He was more certain to make sure of the strangeness of the custom than to have proof connecting it with Egypt. Egyptian men, he says, stayed at home to weave, the women went abroad. Such evidence as there is goes quite against this paradoxical statement. Another unaccountable proceeding of the Egyptians of Herodotus was that men carried burdens on their heads, and women on their shoulders. Here, again, the monuments show men carrying burdens on their shoulders and women balancing the like on their heads, precisely according to the practice of the modern Egyptians. One curious point in favor of Herodotus, however, is the very ancient hieroglyphic sign meaning 'work,' 'to carry' or 'canal-cutting.' This unquestionably represents a man with a basket on his head. Herodotus strangely declares that there were only priests and no priestesses in Egypt. The contrary is abundantly vouched for by the monuments. The head official was always a man, and a special term, "singers," was applied to priestesses. These facts may account for Herodotus's statement. There seems, however, little to account for his paradox to the effect that daughters, not sons, were bound to maintain their parents in old age. What he says about writing, kneading, circumcision, and the objection to woollen grave-clothes seems fairly well borne out by the monuments.

—M. René Dussaud continues his researches in the epigraphy and mythology of middle Syria. Following his 'Voyage Archéologique au Safa,' noticed some little time ago, we have now another and even more thorough record of exploration and inscription hunting in Hauran. His 'Mission dans les Régiones désertiques de la Syrie moyenne,' in collaboration with Frédéric Macler for the itinerary, is extracted from "Nouvelles Archives des Missions Scientifiques," volume x. (Paris: Imprimerie Nationale). It contains a short statement of the route, with archæological notes, a study of the locality as to character of the soil, nature of the ancient populations and their cultivation—"simplement à dégager les caractéristiques"—a collection of 904 Safaite inscriptions, a complete Safaite glossary and onomasticon for all the published inscriptions—by Littmann, Dussaud in his two journeys, De Vogüé, and Wetzstein—180 Greek and Latin inscriptions, 20 Nabatean inscriptions and 33 Arabic, all carefully indexed. Many of these consist of a word or two, and most of proper names only, yet among them is the five-line Nabateo-Arabic inscription of en-Nemara, of A. D. 328, in the Nabatean character and strongly marked with Aramaisms, but at bottom good classical Arabic, and thus, so far, our earliest specimen of the language of the Qur'an. The next in date seems to be the trilingual of Zebed of A. D. 512. That others will be found can hardly be doubted, and among them the Marquis de Vogüé's derivation of the Cufic script from a degraded Nabatean is acquiring a tolerably firm basis. To leave such matters of letters, it is curious to note from this same inscription of en-Nemara how a certain Imr al-Qays—an ancestor, it may be, of the great Arab poet—held the desert then for Rome, and gained therefrom the style and crown of King of all the Arabs. Nowadays the same task lies with the Turkish Governor of Damascus, and it is cheering, if rather surprising, to learn from M. Dussaud that Nazim Pasha has solved for the time the Druse question, and that there is peace in the Mountain; a real peace and not simply a solitude. In a brochure of sixty-eight pages (Paris: Ernest Leroux) M. Dussaud has further put together eight 'Notes de Mythologie Syrienne,' dealing with the different symbols and images of the Syrian solar deity. One detail is of general interest: the type of the Good Shepherd in early Christian art is here again derived from that of Hermes Kriophoros, yet not directly, but through a young solar deity, similarly "kriophoros," of Oriental origin.

WALLACE ON LIFE IN THE UNIVERSE.

Man's Place in the Universe: A Study of the Results of Scientific Research in Relation to the Unity or Plurality of Worlds. By Alfred R. Wallace, LL.D., D.C.L., F.R.S. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1903.

This latest work of the Nestor of scientific authors is so far unique in spirit and purpose that the critical reader may fail to grasp its underlying idea without some study. In reading it through, the first impression would be that of a rather disconnected treatise on astronomy, in which the structure of the universe is set forth with some detail, but without any apparent relation to humanity. After this flight through the more distant regions of space, the reader is brought homeward, and proceeds to a survey of the planets. Then he lands on solid earth, and passes in review the main facts of meteorology, geology, and natural science generally. The conditions of organic life are next demonstrated. Not until the end is approached, and the reader has had time to arrange his ideas, do the logical order of presentation and the unity of the theme become apparent. Then the conclusions are moulded into a well ordered system well calculated to excite attention even on the part of those who cannot accept them in their entirety: The universe is a rounded whole; our solar system is situated in its centre. Of the eight planets revolving around our sun, the third occupies a peculiar position. Organic life requires the concurrence of a great multitude of conditions which exist on our particular planet, but cannot well be fulfilled in any other part of the universe than its centre, nor in the neighborhood of any star but our sun, nor on any planet revolving round that sun except the one on which we dwell. In order to be a seat of life, a planet must revolve in a nearly circular orbit at such a distance from the sun that it shall receive exactly the amount of light and heat that ours does. It must be surrounded by an atmosphere formed of a combination of nitrogen and oxygen in the proper proportion. The force of gravity on the surface of this planet must be the same as we find it, because, were it greatly different, it could not retain the proper amount of atmosphere at the proper pressure. Aqueous vapor must be present in sufficient quantities to produce the right amount of rain. But we need not go farther into details. They may be summed up by saying that the planet must correspond so closely to ours in almost every important particular that, accepting the conditions, the author may be quite right in his estimate of the improbability that they are all combined on any other body.

This doctrine is certainly an extreme case of reaction against the popular ideas which prevailed two or three generations ago, when men like Sir David Brewster and Thomas Dick pointed out to admiring readers the adaptability of other worlds to become the abode of human beings, and even calculated the possible number of inhabitants who might derive their sustenance from the ample acres of Mars and Jupiter. It must be confessed that the general trend of the discoveries of modern science has been in the direction of the reaction which Mr. Wallace carries to so extreme a point. It cannot be denied that the conditions of organic life on our globe seem to be of a very exceptional character; and that, so far as research has yet gone, these conditions are not likely to exist on any other planet of our system except, perhaps, Mars. We have no evidence of the existence elsewhere of solar systems like ours. Revolving double stars have been known ever since the time of the elder Herschel, and the spectroscope is now making known to astronomers the existence of great planets revolving around many of the stars; but the general rule in all these cases is that the orbits, so far as developed, show degrees of eccentricity quite incompatible with the regular round of conditions which prevail on the earth.

As a piece of analytical reasoning, in which the greatest variety of facts are, with artistic logic, arrayed in support of the conclusion, the book is well worthy of its distinguished author; and yet we doubt if many readers will accept his conclusions. The web of his argument is woven according to all the rules of art, but its texture is too finespun to bear the weight it is expected to carry. It is an attempt to prove a negative in a case where no such proof is possible. Wide though our knowledge of the universe has become, it is infinitesimal when compared with the range it will have to include before anything positive can be said on the subject of life in other worlds. There are probably more than a hundred million stars in the heavens. Of these we know that one—our sun—has an orderly system of planets revolving around it in nearly circular orbits. We know that among the hundred million there are several thousand double stars—suns revolving around each other—in orbits of which we, as yet, know little more than that their variety is infinite. Perhaps fifty or a hundred of these orbits are known. We also know of a few hundred stars which have dark planets revolving around them. There is not one star out of a thousand of which we know anything more than that it exists, and that it shines with a certain light, which, when analyzed, gives a particular kind of spectrum, sometimes like that of our sun, and sometimes not. There may be thousands, nay millions, of solar systems like ours the existence of which we have no means of determining. Looking at the question as one

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of probabilities, the chances are very much against Mr. Wallace's theory.

Perhaps the weakest point of the whole argument is the extent to which it rests on the idea of our sun occupying a central position in the universe. It is quite true that, to all appearance, our position does not deviate from the centre to an extent that can be determined by any methods yet known. But in such a case the very word centre must be somewhat indefinite. It is not a point, only a region, and a region which is very wide and ill-defined. The idea is also open to the objection that, even if our sun is, in our age, in the centre, it could not have been so in past geological ages. It is moving through space at the rate of some ten miles a second—a motion so rapid and so little subject to change that it must have been following its present course for millions of years. It is as certain as anything in such a subject can be, that our system did not occupy the central position when life commenced on the earth, and will cease to occupy it in the future. Mr. Wallace's argument that, after all, the motion may be limited in extent is of the lamest kind. The fact is that the astronomer can reach no conclusion as to the precise condition of the universe at a time when, according to current geological theories, the surface of the earth began to assume its present form. The geologist demands hundreds of millions of years; but the universe of the astronomer, considered as a system, could not, seemingly, have existed in its present arrangement through so long a period. The author's conclusion, therefore, seems incompatible with the most certain deduction from observed facts which astronomy permits of our making.

Another consideration will not fail to occur to the thinking reader, which he will hesitate in bringing to bear only because the author of "Natural Selection" is perhaps as eminent an authority as any other on the subject. That the life which has developed on the earth in the course of ages must be such as the conditions prevailing on our planet made possible, follows as a matter of course, because otherwise it would never have existed at all. We may also admit that these particular forms of life could never have been evolved under any other conditions. But does it therefore follow that no life whatever could have been evolved except that which we have on earth? The fish we find in the ocean are suitable to their environment and could not live in any other. Does it follow that in an ocean of some other substance no animated creature would ever have come into existence? Such questions can be answered with certainty only by experiment, but the opportunity for trying the experiment is wanting. Such observations as we can make of the surface of the earth do give color to the view that life cannot be evolved except at certain temperatures. There is little living matter at the two poles. But, at the other extreme, we find that the warmer the climate the more abundant the life which it supports. Granting a due amount of moisture, no part of the world is so hot that plants, animals, and even men do not thrive. So far as we can judge, an earth yet hotter than ours would have been yet more fertile in life—perhaps almost up to the boiling point of water. Below this point there is a range of temperature wide enough to include countless planets among the many millions which may form other solar systems. Taken altogether, the author's argument seems as inconclusive as it is ingenious and comprehensive.

SIBERIA PICTURED BY AN EXILE.

Sixteen Years in Siberia. By Leo Deutsch. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1903.

In this delightfully written and admirably translated book the public is furnished with an account of exile life in prison by one of the most famous of the "politicals," who in his day bore the reputation of being unrivalled for his daring and his resourcefulness. As the Siberian experience was chiefly in the prison at Kara, and as the author, naturally, had a wide acquaintance with his fellow-politicals, both men and women, the reader will recognize various facts and persons already more or less known to them through Mr. Kennan's work on the Russian exile system. At the end of an interesting preface for the enlightenment of the public as to the general revolutionary question (written from the revolutionary point of view exclusively), the translator expresses the belief that the Russian original of the volume (evidently printed outside of Russia) will soon be placed on the prohibited list by the Russian Government. It is a pity to deprive the reader of the enjoyment imparted by this flavor of forbidden fruit, but in all probability it will never be interfered with by the censorship committee. This is not the only work by an exile on prison experience (in Siberia, Schlüsselburg, and Sakhalin) published of late years. Like the Russian books from which Mr. Kennan derived much of his information concerning prisons, the works referred to have been published in Russia, with the censor's permission, although some of them contained pictures of convicts chained to barrows, and statements quite as obnoxious (presumably) as those in the present volume. In this case, in particular, the comparisons made of German prison methods and officials with the same things in Russia—distinctly to the advantage of the latter—would probably appeal to the censor in various ways.

Mr. Deutsch tells us that in 1884 he went from Zurich to Freiburg with a consignment of revolutionary literature which was to be smuggled into Russia. At Freiburg the German police arrested him, without a warrant, for having in his possession literature which was openly and legally sold by German booksellers in their shops; he was illegally detained; the police seized a young woman who chanced to ascend the steps of the hotel, and dragged her to the station, insisting that she was his wife, although both parties protested, and with truth, that they had never set eyes on each other before. The description of German prison methods and officials, and of the manner in which his interpreter (appointed by the authorities), one of the university professors, plotted for his release or escape in the very presence of his jailers, is instructive and illuminating in the extreme. "Extradition stared me in the face; I could not banish the fear of it," said Mr. Deutsch; and he then proceeds to explain, in brief, the cause of his alarm. He, with others, had attempted to murder an informer—a renegade from the revolutionary cause—but the man had survived and given the authorities information about his would-be assassins. Later, Deutsch had been arrested, with others, for stirring up the peasants at Tchigirin to revolutionary activity, but had escaped from prison before trial, and lived abroad for years. Extradition on the first of these counts would throw him into the category of ordinary criminals; extradition on the second count would place him in the class of political criminals. The latter was what he feared. While the two Governments were arguing this point, he learned to know the German prison régime well, and mentions, among other instances of arbitrariness and severity, that the officials peeled and quartered oranges brought to him by his friends, lest tools for escape might be concealed therein; and that he was never allowed a light, although in the stone prison there was, practically, nothing to burn; while in the wooden prisons in Siberia and the wooden barracks on the road prisoners and guards smoked freely. In strong contrast to this was the manner in which the Russian gendarmes received him at the frontier, and vied with each other in doing the agreeable and making him feel at home. This was, on the whole, the attitude of the Russian prison officials and authorities.

In spite of the fact that the German Government had surrendered Mr. Deutsch only on the express condition that he should be tried as a common criminal, not as a political, the Russian Government cleverly and gradually shifted its ground; and as a political prisoner he was condemned, after long imprisonment, to exile at Kara. He narrates his experiences in the different prisons of European Russia in considerable detail, and the foreign reader is amazed at the laxity of discipline—as, indeed, he is later on with instances of the same sort in Siberia. There was great freedom of intercourse; prisoners were not forced to wear their fetters, nor to have the half of their heads shaved, for months at a time. Once, in Siberia, Mr. Deutsch's bag, containing, among other things, his fetters (which he was supposed to be wearing) was stolen from him, and, on his reporting the loss to the proper officer, the latter calmly hunted up another pair in order to conform to regulations to the extent of providing them, and pleasantly watched him packing them up instead of donning them. At one point Mr. Deutsch says that the politicals would have been glad to be placed on the footing of ordinary criminals, though it does not appear quite clearly from his tale why they should; the common convicts had to do all the dirty work for the politicals' prison, and the officials were not bound to be courteous to the former, as they were, traditionally, to the latter. Indeed, the manner in which the politicals were chronically in revolt against the regulations, and in which they dictated manners to officials high and low, is decidedly astonishing to any one familiar with prison methods in other lands, especially when he learns from Mr. Deutsch that many of these men were being exiled for murder and thefts on a large scale, equally with the common convicts. The superintendent of the Moscow prison was so kind and lax that they meditated giving him a testimonial, but the captain declined to let them diminish their scanty stock of money in

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that way. The author naïvely states that afterwards they changed their minds about this man, because he decoyed them into a trap, and had their heads shaved and their fetters riveted on by force (after they had refused to submit), as the officer who was to assume charge of them on the journey demanded that the regulations on those points should be observed. They opposed the officials in regard to the number of persons to be placed in each of the three-horse teams in which they travelled across Siberia, to the river or road route from Tiumen, to pretty much everything.

Our author records much more liberty than is generally supposed to exist in Siberian exile parties; for instance, he says that they stayed a week in Tomsk, and during that time made acquaintance with all the exiles there, as these latter were allowed to visit the newcomers in the prison. He comments on the surprising fact that hardened robbers and murderers were so easy to rule, and gives instances of the desperate character of some convicts; he chronicles the amiable chats between the fugitive convicts met on the road and the officers in charge of their own gang; he records the beneficent effect of the long journey. "We felt born anew," he says; "our open-air life worked wonders following on our long imprisonment. Many who had left Moscow weak and ill became robust in health during the journey."

From time to time the author gives brief biographies of the members of his travelling party, or of prisoners whom they meet on the way. He is engagingly frank, and there is no reason to doubt that he really perceives nothing out of the way in well-born, well-educated women abandoning their husbands and children to do revolutionary work, robbing a Government vault of a million and a half of rubles for the "cause," or trying to assassinate officials. Most of the women were as fractious (on principle) as the men, and frequently provoked official rigor, to which they replied with the terrible hunger-strikes. On the other hand, as in the case of the Romny school-girls, he records not a few instances where the prisoners are entirely innocent of all evil deeds or even intentions; and others still where terrible results grew out of trivial misunderstandings. Of course these incidents might bear another interpretation if narrated by a person of different sympathies; but Mr. Deutsch's account impresses the reader as truthful, and inspires the same sort of regret as does ill-usage of the innocent inmates of an almshouse or asylum at home.

The account of life in the prison at Kara is brief in comparison with what precedes, but it is sufficient to furnish a vivid picture of the conditions prevailing there. One would like to have heard more about the forced labor in the open air; but Mr. Deutsch merely alludes to it in passing as a great alleviation. In the prison they had their library, their individual handicrafts for amusement, and a certain degree of comfort. The impossibility of securing solitude, even for a moment, seemed to most of the prisoners as maddening as the lack of company does to the convict in solitary confinement in our western jails.

While still an exile, though no longer in the prison, Mr. Deutsch was asked to aid the Government officials in taking the census, travelled with Government equipages, lodged in the official quarters, and so forth, in a way which must greatly astonish the reader, to whom such things have hitherto been unknown. Eventually, Mr. Deutsch went to live in Blagovestchensk, and he gives a vivid picture of the situation there which resulted in the massacre of many Chinese. As other accounts, equally veracious, apparently, represent that affair in a diametrically opposite light, the reader must select the version he prefers. That the author is not free from errors (or discrepancies) of statement is shown by the fact that he mentions Sergius Bobohoff (page 285) as having been expelled from the St. Petersburg veterinary college "towards the end of the sixties," and then (page 286) says: "Bobohoff was but a youth when I entered the prison"—in 1885! In one or two other cases he produces an erroneous impression, as when he speaks of Schlüsselburg prison and the Island of Sakhalin as places from which no prisoner ever returns. He has followed up the career of many members in conspiracies to which he alludes, and frequently mentions their names and their late or present occupation. Yet among the persons so mentioned are some who have been released from Schlüsselburg and Sakhalin (they did not make their escape, as Mr. Deutsch did from Siberia), and who have been or still are in the Government service, with all their lost rank and rights restored; and that not through having turned informers—as one might infer from some of his remarks—but in a perfectly straightforward, honorable manner.

From the outline above given the reader will see that the book is not only intensely interesting, but important for the impartial study of Siberia and of Russian affairs, and a valuable addition to a collection on those subjects.

Rousseau and Naturalism in Life and Thought. By William Henry Hudson. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1903. Pp. 252. ("The World's Epoch Makers.")

This little work is well calculated to excite the reader's desire to know more of its subject by study at first hand. The lesser half of it is a sufficient biographical sketch; the remainder is devoted to a brief analytic examination of Rousseau's works, and a suggestion of his influence upon his contemporaries and posterity in thought and deed—"a vital force in history." This is a timely service as preparation for the bicentennial of Rousseau's birth, now only eight years distant; nor is it neutralized by Mr. Hudson's constant passing from banning to blessing. In the end, forsaking all apology for defects which the author of the 'Confessions' half expiated by becoming his own recording angel, Mr. Hudson gives an impression of an essentially amiable and humane character; democratic in sentiment; charitable to the poor and needy; "in the midst of insincerity, cynicism, flippancy, . . . frank of speech and always in earnest; and, according to his lights," proclaiming "idealism and religion to a world steeped in materialism and unbelief"; in short, "a man of a profoundly religious nature," to whom, accordingly, is dedicated a chapter on his religious writings.

The biographer of one whose name has become synonymous with paradox, is perhaps excusable for some contradictions on his own part. A proof-reader might have challenged the sentence on page 116: "Though [as an author] he possessed but little *versatility* of interest or power, Rousseau's writings are considerable in bulk and *various* in character" (italics ours); to wit, comedies and a fragment of a tragedy; "several operas and musical interludes," including the first example of libretto and music from the same brain; "a fair amount of occasional verse; some translations;" a number of works on botany and music; and various miscellaneous treatises on diverse subjects; besides the few really important volumes with which his name and fame are now almost entirely associated." This is pretty well for a writer devoid of versatility, and will bear comparison with the high-born Goethe's many-sidedness (partly drawn out by Rousseau himself). Mr. Hudson purposely omits all separate consideration of Rousseau's musical and botanical passions, each of which, however, has been made the theme of an elaborate German monograph. In general, here, as in most lives of Rousseau, his musical inheritance is very unsatisfactorily related to his career.

There is no select bibliography, and references to authorities are confined to the footnotes. In these Mr. Hudson cites once and again Ritter's admirable 'La Famille et la Jeunesse de J.-J. Rousseau,' yet strangely pronounces the Genevan "a plebeian of the plebeians" (p. 223). It is true that no ancestor bearing his name made his way into the *haute bourgeoisie* and became a ruler in the little Swiss aristocracy, but the Rousseaus were thrifty breadwinners, left money to hospitals, the poor, to the College, and belonged of origin to the Huguenot class whose two expulsions from France, under Henry II. and Louis XIV., are justly regarded as having impoverished the country of its best blood. Ritter's summary is:

> "One thing at least is certain: Rousseau is a child of the middle classes in Genevan society, and belongs throughout his line of ascent to very good and old families. His four great-grandfathers were Genevan burgesses—a watchmaker, a master tanner, a merchant draper, a man of law. And if, on several sides, pursuit of his origin discovers peasant families, at other points in the genealogical table we meet among his ancestors, direct or collateral, members of the highest aristocracy in Geneva, who held the supreme magistracies of the city from the fourteenth to the eighteenth century."

Indeed, one who reads M. Ritter's documented chapters will be struck by the general resemblance of the Rousseau family proper to the average New England "tree" which thousands of ardent genealogists are incessantly endeavoring to construct and perfect.

Mr. Hudson cannot agree with those who, making all allowances for Jean-Jacques's shortcomings, find "there is still left much that we can both admire and love." "To me," he says (p. 115), "Rousseau, as a man, is a degenerate, who does not even possess the personal fascination which sometimes goes along with degeneracy." We have already cited expressions that considerably abate this charge, which recalls Lincoln's wish, to a detractor of Grant, that he had more such "drunken" generals. But the personal fascination appears to us unquestionable and to account for many

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strokes of good fortune in the critical period of youth as well as later. Of this the two authentic portraits from life, particularly Ramsay's, give evidence; and it must have been his chief recommendation to Mme. de Warens. As Mr. Hudson, by the way, cites Rousseau's designation of this protector and paramour as "mamma"—a term particularly odious in view of their ages and the twofold relation—we will quote M. Ritter's explanation that it was used in an old sense having no regard whatever to maternity. "The mistress of a house used to be called *maman* by her intimates; and so Voltaire called his niece, Mme. Denis, who kept house for him at Ferney." It might better be translated, then, either Mistress or Lady.

The difficult task of analyzing works now hard to understand and to reconcile with one another has been laudably performed by Mr. Hudson; but he should have reported Rousseau's censure of his correspondents who used 'Émile' literally as a manual in the education of their children, instead of as an inspiration. (Mr. Hudson, in passing, might have laid stress on the need of a student's going to the Letters for a real acquaintance with Rousseau; but they are nowhere treated as a whole.) Mary Wollstonecraft's memorable reply to 'Émile' is overlooked. At page 185, Herbert Spencer's cardinal principle of moral education is said to have been anticipated by Rousseau; while at page 206 we read:

"But Mr. Spencer himself informs me that at the time his 'Education' was written he had not even heard of the existence of 'Émile,' that he has never read it since, and that he knows nothing whatever of any of Rousseau's theories about any matters, save what he has picked up in general reading about the Social Contract."

A few slips may be remarked. Motiers is persistently misprinted "Môtiers." At page 188, *in petto* once more stands for "in little." At page 110, the "after history and present resting-place" of Rousseau's bones are said to be "uncertain." They were, however, exhumed and identified in the Panthéon on December 18, 1897, and of course replaced. Examination of the skull confuted the legend of suicide by shooting.

Pilgrim-Walks in Rome: A Guide to its Holy Places. By P. J. Chandlery, S.J. London: John Griffin; New York: The Messenger.

This is a book with a specific and strictly limited purpose. It is written for Catholic pilgrims in Rome, and apparently for no one else. The general reader might cavil at its sweeping exclusions, but the author fairly disarms criticism in advance by a frank and explicit statement of just what he has not attempted. Even Christian archæology is touched upon very lightly; for that the reader is referred to Marucchi and to Father Grisar. In many respects the volume gains by this singleness of purpose, and those who come to Rome *devotione Catholica*, to use the author's quotation from Petrarch, will find it a faithful guide, and unencumbered by matter which would seem to them trivial in comparison with their spiritual interests. As Father Chandlery, in his very candid introduction, says:

"Pilgrims who visit the Eternal City in this Catholic *spirit of devotion* . . . will take but a secondary interest in the monuments of antiquity, the colossal works of architecture, the records of imperial greatness, the treasures of art, literature, archæology, stored in its galleries, libraries, and museums—they know that Rome has something far grander to show than these evidences of material prosperity and intellectual power."

After this, we know what not to expect. For a Jesuit, it must be said that the work is unscholarly. It is surprising to find such a statement as that regarding Pope Sylvester II. (d. 1003): "The tomb was opened in 1648, when the body was found well preserved, dressed in state robes, with the *tiara* on his head." One is tempted to believe that this was due purely to haste and carelessness; the author surely cannot be ignorant that the tiara first came into existence in the fourteenth century. Altogether, the book shows signs of hasty compilation. Father Chandlery's attitude toward legend in general, and toward shrines and relics in particular, is one of uncritical acceptance. True, he tells us that, where the authenticity of these treasures has been questioned by recent writers, he notes the fact; and once or twice there does appear a feeble "Qualified as inadmissible by Marucchi," but in a way which by no means suffices to establish a judicial attitude. The author's studies have evidently been more devotional than archæological. Style there is none, and extremely little sympathy with the native Roman preference in objects of devotion; else Sansovino's "Madonna del Parto," easily the prime favorite of the entire city, would not be dismissed in a casual sentence of four lines.

The one genuinely human trait of the book is the author's evident and huge relish for the grosser splendors of the baroque Jesuit churches. Gilding and carving, the convolutions of twisted columns over high altars, the heaping up of serpentine and porphyry and lapis-lazuli—all this delights him, and he lets you see that it does—that he regards it as a visible sign of the triumph of his order. It is, at any rate, a harmless pleasure. Of course, there are occasional references to the "usurpation" and the "vandalism" of the present kingdom, and extracts from the lamentations of Hare; but, in the main, the author is at peace with mankind. As a pilgrim's handbook, this publication is fairly comprehensive, and will often be found useful, though rarely interesting.

The Autobiography of William Simpson. Edited by George Eyre-Todd. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 1903.

Odysseus himself was a stay-at-home, and his career almost monotonous and uneventful, when compared with the man and the life recorded in this book. During forty years (1854-1893) William Simpson, pioneer of "war artists," was an observer on the spot of most of the great wars and historic events in which England was interested. Beginning with the Crimea—where he earned the title of "Crimean Simpson"—travelling just after the Mutiny through nearly all India and studying its people, its architecture, and its antiquities for the purposes of illustration, he next accompanied Napier to Magdala, marched with the Germans into Paris, stayed there through the Commune, and later still took part in the Afghan war, and by mere chance escaped assassination with Cavagnari. Among his peaceful experiences were the Afghan boundary commission, the Vatican council of 1869, the tour of the Prince of Wales in India, the opening of the Suez Canal, and many royal marriages. All these, as well as Schliemann's discoveries at Mycenæ and Warren's at Jerusalem, he illustrated or described for the London *Illustrated News* or other papers. Keeping careful diaries wherever he went, he was enabled by their means during the last five years of his life (he died in 1899) to write this autobiography.

It is obvious that not much which is positively new can be expected from such a book, for the whole endeavor of the author was to get the results of his observations before the public as soon as possible after he had made them, and this he did through the medium of the daily or weekly press long ago. We shall therefore never know how much of what is now common property was first given to the world at large by him, either in his pictures or by his pen. And, further, the personal and individual, not the public, element is the conspicuous one throughout this book, which indeed was written for his daughter, so "that when she grows up she may learn something of her father's life." Nevertheless, there is a certain charm in the homely, straightforward style, which holds the reader; and so do the constantly shifting scene, the varied incidents, and the events historically great or familiarly attractive, all described so simply and without any of that "fine writing" in which the ordinary newspaper man takes such delight. Above all, there is throughout the note of truthfulness, for which, as one of his co-workers wrote, Simpson was unequalled among his fellows, and for an "almost passionate zeal for the examination and inquiry to get at the truth, and to set it forth by pen and pencil." He was a self-educated man, who by hard work and fair play rose to the top of the profession which he created, and by his modesty and veracity (which never interfered with his success as a special artist or correspondent) won himself friends in every walk of life, even in the highest. Thus, the present King, when Prince of Wales, received him upon terms of friendship, and, on the death of the Duke of Clarence, Simpson was the only newspaper man admitted to Sandringham, where he sketched the dead prince upon his bed, the family passing in and out of the room the while.

The book contains some two dozen full-page pictures, reproduced from original drawings by Simpson, which are now owned by the King, the British Museum, and others. Of these, the two most interesting are, first, that of the tomb of Omar Khayyám (from which, by the way, Simpson sent to Quaritch some seeds from rose-bushes there growing, and from these seeds plants were cultivated and set out on the grave of FitzGerald); the other, two states of the drawing of the Prince of Wales's elephant attacked by a tiger, the first showing Simpson's original sketch, and the second the same picture as redrawn in the office of the London *News* for reproduction in that paper.

The Apocryphal and Legendary Life of Christ. By the Rev. James De Quincy Donehoo, M.A. The Macmillan Co.

The sub-title gives a full description of this volume: "Being the whole body of the Apocryphal Gospels and other extra-Canon-

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ical Literature which pretends to tell of the life and words of Jesus Christ, including much matter which has not before appeared in English. In continuous narrative form, with notes, Scriptural references, prolegomena, and indices." The author has attempted to deal with the heterogeneous and mainly puerile literature, usually termed apocryphal, as Tatian in the second century dealt with the four canonical Gospels. He is candid in his portrayal of the character of the material he uses, and attributes most of it to heretical sources. But he thinks it will prove interesting. Its most important lesson, however, is "that of the utter unlikeness of this literature to the canonical books of the New Testament," a fact recognized by all who have known anything of the Apocryphal Gospels. This is the first work of the kind in English, and has the advantage of including much matter recently recovered; but even this matter adds little to our knowledge.

The introduction has been made with care, and the bibliography is full and up to date. The compilation, in the body of the work, is almost entirely from the eighth volume of the 'Ante-Nicene Fathers' (American edition). The difficulty, however, of constructing a "continuous narrative" is obvious on every page. The separate accounts are so incongruous, the basis of fact so attenuated, to put it mildly, that a consistent and orderly story cannot be arranged. The footnotes, which show a good deal of research, help the reader to some extent; but when curiosity has been satisfied, one will ask whether the material deserved such patient efforts. The author deems the literature of some value, despite its origin and its intrinsic worthlessness, as showing the sources of many popular superstitions, and as contributing to an understanding of mediæval art. Probably this is the most that can be said in commendation of such a volume.

The New Epoch as Developed by the Manufacture of Power. By George S. Morison. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1903.

The late George S. Morison achieved distinction as an engineer and bridge-builder, and in his profession occupied a very high rank. He did not write much outside the field of his immediate professional work, and this little posthumous essay is all the more welcome. As a few lines of introduction inform us, it was ready for the press in 1898, but was not then published. The manuscript is now printed as he left it.

The fundamental idea which runs through the volume is that the present age of the world marks the beginning of one of those great ethnical periods which embody a distinct advance and change in human civilization. As, in prehistoric speculations, ethnologists have accustomed us to think of successive stages marked by the discovery of the use of fire, by the introduction of the primitive forms of projectiles, by pottery, by the domestication of animals, by the manufacture of iron and the invention of written characters, so Mr. Morison thinks that what distinguishes our present world from the historical world as it existed down to the beginning of the nineteenth century is not steam, or railroads, or the telephone, or the telegraph, but something which underlies all our inventions, which he calls the possibility of manufacturing power. We believe he called it, in one of the original addresses or articles embodied in the book (a list of which is given in the preface), the *multiplication* of power. Either phrase expresses succinctly his idea.

To condense what he says: A new human capacity was needed to make an epoch as distinct as those in primitive society. This has been found. Man has learned to generate power, to produce, wherever needed, practically unlimited power. "Whatever the measure of a single machine, that machine can be used to make a greater one." The steam-engine, Mr. Morison admits, is still almost the sole representative of manufactured power—perhaps he had in mind stored electricity as the next great invention in this direction, but what he insists upon is, that the method is a secondary thing. "The great advance came with the ability to manufacture power at all."

Mr. Morison, in the remainder of the book, traces the effects which the new capacity has in its relation to business, capital, government, civil engineering, the university, and education in general. But here, unless we are mistaken, his argument depends quite as much on the effect of the inventions by means of which intelligence is transmitted as on those which represent the manufacture of mere power. The telephone and the telegraph, for instance, are changing the world. By means of the former, two industries, a thousand miles apart, which would formerly have competed with one another, can be combined under the eye of a single master; by means of the latter the intercourse between nations, which was formerly managed entirely by diplomatic representatives, can now be carried on directly between the heads of Governments, making our ambassadors and ministers often seem like instances of ornamental survival. Mr. Morison has a good deal to say about the effect of the annihilation of distance on the art of government. But is all this the same as what he means by the manufacture of power? Possibly the manufacture of power is only one of the many distinguishing marks which separate our age from all that have gone before; if so, Mr. Morison has pressed his theory too hard. But he has given a name to what was without one before; and this is no small feat. This volume will be found full of interest and suggestion.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ailenroc, M. R. The White Castle of Louisiana (Novel). Louisville, Ky.: John P. Morton & Co: $1.25.
Baker, Mary Shaw. Footprints on the Sands of Time. (Verse.) Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.
Bérard, Victor. Les Phéniciens et l'Odyssée. Vol. II. Paris: Armand Colin.
Bertaux, Emile. L'Art dans l'Italie Méridionale. Vol. I.—Iconographie Comparée des Rouleaux de l'Exultet. (Tableaux synoptiques.) Paris: Albert Fontemoing.
Bristol, Augusta Cooper. A Spray of Cosmos. (Verse.) Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.25.
Delamere, G., Poirier, P., and Cunéo, B. The Lymphatics. Translated by Cecil H. Leaf. Chicago: W. T. Keener & Co. $5 net.
Demosthenis Orationes. (Scriptorum Classicorum Bibliotheca Oxoniensis.) Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. Cloth, 4s. 6d.
Deschamps, Gaston. La Vie et les Livres. Sixth series. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr. 50.
Van de Warker, Ely. Woman's Unfitness for Higher Coeducation. The Grafton Press.
Field, Ben. Poems. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.50.
Glasgow, Ellen. The Deliverance. (A Virginia tale.) Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Gore, James Howard. Political Parties and Party Policies in Germany. (Questions of the Day.—No. CII.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
Hoetzsch, Otto. Die Vereinigten Staaten von Nord-Amerika. (Monographien zur Weltgeschichte.) Leipsic: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 4 m.
Johnson, Thomas Cary. The Life and Letters of Robert Lewis Dabney. Richmond, Va.: The Presbyterian Committee of Publication. $2.50 net; postage 18 cents.
Larned, J. N. A History of the United States for Secondary Schools. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.40 net, postpaid.
Parsons on Contracts. 3 vols. Edited by John M. Gould. Ninth edition. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Skrine, Francis Henry. The Expansion of Russia—1815-1900. (Cambridge Historical Series.) Cambridge: The University Press; New York: The Macmillan Co. 6s.
The Bay Psalm Book. (A facsimile reprint of the first edition). Introduction by Wilberforce Eames. Limited ed. Dodd, Mead & Co. Japan paper $10 net; deckle-edge laid paper $4 net.
Toler, Henry Pennington. Arise, Take Thy Journey. New Harlem Pub. Co.
Whittaker's Churchman's Almanac and Parochial List. 1904. 2 and 3 Bible House. 25 cents.
Winfield, Arthur M. The Rover Boys on Land and Sea. The Mershon Co. 60 cents.
Xanthaky, Sokrates A. The Greeks's Companion. (A general guide for Greeks in the United States and Canada.) New York: 2 and 4 Stone St.

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